DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 079 215 SO 006 035

AUTHOR	Joyce, Bruce R.; And Others
TITLE	Television and Social Studies: Synergy and Symbiosis.
PUB DATE	[71]
NOTE	140p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$6.58
DESCRIPTORS	*Curriculum Planning; *Educational Development; Educational Improvement; Educational Innovation; Educational Needs; *Educational Objectives; Educational Resources; Educational Strategies; *Educational Television; Guidelines; Instructional Design; Instructional Media; *Social Studies; Teaching Techniques; Televised Instruction

ABSTRACT

Educational television has not yet reached its full potential for supporting the social studies in American public schools. The most effective roles for television have not yet been defined, nor have social studies educators developed the production thrust that can enable television to fill a major role in social studies education. This document contains recommendations of a study initiated by the National Television Instructional Center in which educators set forth guidelines for use of television by social studies curriculum makers. Identification is made of various missions and means in the social studies curriculum area and the support roles that television could fulfill within each of them are described. Goals and curricular patterns of existing and emerging social studies approaches are defined and a framework for decision-making suggested. Instruction is viewed as the means to accomplish particular curriculum goals. Cited are six instructional strategies with an analysis of the social studies curriculum patterns and the use of television in terms of the current and potential strategies they represent. Specific recommendations for actions for the application of television to social studies improvement are made. (Author/SHM)

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Television and Social Studies:

Synergy and Symbiosis

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SO 006 035

CONTENTS

PREFACE 1

1. TELEVISION AS A SUPPORT SYSTEM FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES: THREE ROLES 6

This first chapter outlines three ways that television can function to support learning in the social studies. Each of the three is described as a support system function.

Student Support Systems 9
Teacher Support Systems 11
A Comprehensive Support: The Managerial System 13
Applying Television to Social Studies 17

2. ANALYZING CURRICULUM MISSIONS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES 18

This chapter identifies the goals and curricular patterns of existing and emerging social studies approaches and suggests a framework for decision-making with respect to them.

The Mission and Methods of the Social Studies, 1920-1960 19
The Emergent Scene and Patterns of Television Support 24
The Goal Complexes of the Emerging Approaches to the Social Studies 26
The Personal Domain 27
The Social Domain 32
The Academic Domain 38
Classification of Social Studies Approaches According to Three Domains 43
Implications of the Different Missions 47

3. TEACHING STRATEGIES: THE MEANS OF SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMS 50

Instruction is viewed as the means to accomplish particular curriculum goals. This chapter identifies six instructional strategies and analyzes the social studies curriculum patterns and the use of television in terms of the current and potential strategies they represent.

The Identification of Teaching Strategies 51
Taba's Inductive Strategy 52
Cooperative Inquiry Strategy 56
Simulation as a Teaching Strategy 60
Behavior Shaping Strategy: Programmed Instruction 63
Expository Strategies 68
Practicing the Discipline: A Sixth Teaching Strategy 72
The Teaching Strategies in Social Studies Curriculums 75
Media and Curricular and Instructional Strategies 76

4. THE OPTIONS FOR TELEVISION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES 78

This chapter summarizes the foci for decision-making and sets forth specific recommendations for actions to improve the social studies.

Selecting Priorities 80
Recommendations for Action to Improve the Social Studies 81
Recommendation #1: Regional and National Programs Directed at Problems of Social Urgency 83
Recommendation #2: Implementing Innovative Curriculum Patterns 103
Recommendation #3: A Bank of Courses in the Social Studies 114

Preface

Although there have been a few outstanding local achievements educational television has still not reached its full potential for supporting the social studies in the public schools of North America. The most effective roles for television have not yet been defined, nor have social studies educators developed the production thrust that can enable television to fill the major role in social studies education that should be the case.

In the spring of 1968 Robert Fox of the National Television Instructional Center invited several educators to study the situation and to recommend directions for the use of television by social studies curriculum makers. Bruce Joyce of Teachers College, Columbia University, agreed to coordinate the effort. He was joined by William R. Fielder of the Claremont Graduate School of Education; Marsha Weil of Teachers College; Louise Tyler of the University of California, Los Angeles; Elizabeth Wilson, Director of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum of the Montgomery County, Maryland public schools; Howard Mehlinger, Director of the Civic Education Study at Indiana University; Laurence Ward of the Twenty-One Inch Classroom in Boston; Robert Smith of the Metropolitan Television Corporation in Washington, D.C., and Lawrence Walcoff represented the National Instructional Television Center.

This document contains the recommendations that emerged from the study. The substance is addressed to those responsible for program initiation and development in the social studies and to television educators who would cooperate with social studies curriculum personnel to improve programs of social education. The committee combined an analysis of existing and emergent approaches to the social studies with an analysis of the special instructional capabilities of television to arrive at a specific set of recommendations. These recommendations are intended to identify ways that television can make the social studies more powerful and flexible and more responsive to the contemporary problems of the society.

The committee came to believe that television should be seen as a liberating force and should serve to give thrust to innovation within the social studies field. Television has such great potential power that social studies educators can employ it not only to strengthen existing social studies programs but to bring about substantial, even dramatic, reform in the area. The recommendations identify three ways in which educators can capitalize on the unique features of television to make the social studies more effective:

1. Television can serve as a major element in comprehensive curricular systems designed for many students. Such curricula can serve a single school district, a combination of school districts, a state or even the nation. The functions selected for television in a comprehensive curricular system should reflect the unique feature of television--its capacity to unite, to dramatize, to enable communication over long distances. As an integrating

element in a comprehensive plan, television can be a springboard for major curriculum reform.

2. Television can serve as a support system for teachers who are implementing curricular plans or creating their own approaches to the social studies. In this role television needs to be responsive to the requests of the teachers, and they need to control its use. In this role television can support the implementation of curriculum reform which depends on the classroom teacher by making him more effective.
3. Television can be used as a support system to the inquiry of students, being addressed directly to them and increasing their options and control over their own learning. To function in this way, television needs to respond to the request of the student. In this role, television can be used to bring about the implementation of student-centered curricular strategies.

Quite obviously the selection of roles for television can not take place in a vacuum but rather in the context of developments and requirements of the social studies. What was needed then was an analytical framework which integrates these two domains. The structure or plan of the report embodies this framework. It is cast in terms of curricular missions or purposes, curricular means or strategies, and an analysis of the support systems needed to implement a curriculum plan. In terms of decision-making for the social studies and television, this framework provides two points of entry and an analysis of alternative support roles once the decision to use television for the social studies

is made. Television can be used to support a particular social studies mission or to strengthen the means linked to a given mission. With respect to any mission or means, television can take one of the three possible roles mentioned earlier or a combination of the roles. Certain roles may be appropriate to a particular mission or means.

In the report we identify various missions and means in the social studies curriculum area and describe the support roles that television could fulfill within each of them. In Chapter One the particular requirements for the three support roles--as a major element in a curricular system, as a support system for teachers, and as a support system for students--are identified in some detail. In Chapter Two the report presents a system for and analysis of the alternative missions or goals in the social studies. Because there are presently a great many possible approaches to the social studies, this chapter is lengthy and analytical. Chapter Three identifies existing and potential teaching strategies especially as they relate to various curricular approaches in the social studies and considers the possibility for television support of these strategies. Finally, in Chapter Four we make recommendations for immediate action for the application of television to social studies curriculum improvement by selecting certain missions within the social studies, specific strategies for achieving them, identifying particular support roles for television, and indicating the types of production steps that need to be taken to bring these recommendations into existence. Our process went as follows:

Stage One	Select Missions
Stage Two	Select Teaching Strategies
Stage Three	Select support roles for television and other agents
Stage Four	Identify Production Steps

The committee came to believe that the proper use of so powerful and flexible a medium as television depends on the analyses of the curriculum areas to be served, the particular types of support roles that television can play within the curriculum area, and an understanding of the distinctive instructional possibilities within the medium itself. In our study we have concentrated on the first of these two considerations. We hope that the report in focusing the decision-making tasks will stimulate a more extensive use of television in all three support roles for social studies instruction, and also that it will stimulate inquiries into the unique features of the medium as an educational tool.

CHAPTER ONE

Television As A Support System For The Social Studies: Three Roles

To make a productive marriage between any medium and a substantive curriculum area requires an analysis of the particular kinds of educational functions which the medium can accomplish and also an analysis of the curriculum patterns within the substantive area itself in terms of the types of support which these patterns require from media. To achieve these kinds of understandings in the case of television and the social studies is a formidable task. On the one hand, the media is extremely powerful and versatile and potentially could serve an enormous range of educational functions. On the other hand, the social studies is a complex and disorderly curriculum area and is presently in a condition of change which has resulted in an unusual variety of curricular patterns which might be linked to television in various ways.

In this chapter we have structured the potential functions of television into three general categories. Each of these categories represents a particular type of "support system" role which television can provide to the social studies and probably to other curriculum areas as well.

Support systems are an essential in the actualization of any curriculum plan. Every school environment supports certain kinds of educational activity and makes other activities difficult. At the most obvious level, a school with a great library offers more possibilities than one with a

small library. Less obviously, a school which is linked by television to the city government is in a different position than one which has only civics texts for information about city politics. It is useful to think of educational environments as including sets of human and mechanical support systems and it is important to plan educational environments in terms of support systems which increase certain kinds of educational options.[1]

Television can serve as a system directly supporting the student, directly supporting the teacher and aiding him in his work, and, third, as the organizing medium within a comprehensive curriculum framework.

There are numerous ways that television can play all three of these support roles. As a support system to the students, television tapes can bring information about societies' social problems and ways of approaching them. We can imagine, for example, banks of television tapes which bring information to students, both about societies but also about the social sciences. Television can enable the student to have contact with experts from the social sciences and on various kinds of social problems and over television students can hear experts debating alternative solutions to social problems, or they can even generate their own problem definitions and solutions and debate them over television. In other words, as a support system for students television can bring information, expert opinion, an opportunity for debate, the discussion with persons from a wide variety of settings, and instruction in the social sciences.

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[1]See, for a comprehensive description of alternative types of technical support systems and ways of planning them into schools and school systems: Bruce R. Joyce. Alternative Models for Elementary Education (Waltham, Mass.: Blaisdell, 1969).

Television can also support the teacher in quite a number of ways. It can bring him information and instruction about things to be taught. For example, in the primary grades relatively few teachers have a depth preparation in any of the social sciences which makes it very difficult to implement social science based curriculums in the primary grades. The introduction of a curriculum in one of the social sciences could be accompanied by information support to the teacher. In addition, alternative ways of approaching units and lessons could be presented and demonstrated over television. In addition to this television can support the teacher in his instructional role. Banks of material can be prepared which the teacher can draw on as he needs and programs can be prepared which the teacher draws on at his option, either to supplement his instruction or to replace it in areas where he does not feel competent.

In addition to the roles as a support system for the student and for the teacher, it is also possible for a versatile medium like television to play the critical role within a comprehensive curriculum framework. Curriculums can be planned and organized for implementation so that television mediates a good bit of informational output to teachers and students, provides directions to both, suggests activities they can carry on, and through combinations of live broadcasts and the use of video tape coordinates curriculum in such a way that television carries the burden of initiating and monitoring instruction. In a very large proportion of American classrooms not only in the social studies but in other curriculum areas, this kind of central role is played by a much less versatile form of printed media. We refer of course to the textbook and the teacher's manual which accompanies it. The text-manual combination

serves the critical controling functions in most curriculum patterns in most schools throughout the United States and the rest of the western world at the present time. Because of its extraordinary versatility and flexibility, television should be able to provide that function much more adequately than any of the print media now in existence.

Let us look at each of these three types of support systems roles in turn and, after we have done so, let us look at some concrete examples of television in each of the support positions.

Student Support Systems

In order to function as a support system for a student, a medium has to be arranged so that it can be called into play at the option of the student and so that he can select from a reasonable variety the kind of relationship he will have with the medium. An example of a support system that fulfills these conditions was recently developed at Bank Street College. It consists of a very nice set of films in which leading entertainment figures such as Harry Belafonte read stories that are likely to have a very good appeal to Puerto Rican and Negro youngsters in the City of New York. These films have been placed into cartridges and the child can have the use of a film by placing the cartridge in a projector. With a sufficient quantity of these the child is supported in his desire to explore literature even though he may not be able to read very well by himself. He has a support system he can control and which takes him as he is.[2]

Student support systems in the social studies can serve several purposes. One is to bring information to the student. When Fenton and

[2]Bank Street College of Education. The Reading Incentive Film Series (New York: McGraw Hill, 1968 and 1969).

his colleagues developed a social studies curriculum which helps students apply the techniques of historiography to the study of society, they needed to support those students with special materials--original sources that can support a wide range of children's inquiry into various aspects of history. Hence they developed a document file containing original sources on many aspects of American society.[3]

Another example of informational support for students is provided by Joyce and Joyce who have recently produced a set of data banks for use by elementary school children. Each one of the banks is based on a particular town which represents a particular culture. For example, their systems include a Pueblo, a New England town and several European towns. Source materials relating to those towns are sorted into the 650 categories of the Human Relations Area File. The children thus have access to a wide range of data which will support quite a wide range of student questions--questions dealing with hundreds of aspects of society.[4] Current educational technologies provide us with tremendous opportunities to build support materials like these.

Another function of student support systems is to provide instruction at the option of the student. Many educators think that we should build a great many short, self-administering courses. Some of these short courses could be segments of existing courses and others could be new creations. If they were designed so that the student could administer them to himself, the

[3]See: Edwin Fenton. The New Social Studies (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967).

[4]Bruce R. Joyce and Elizabeth H. Joyce. Data Banks for Children (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1969) a report to the U.S. Office of Education under contract #OEC-1-6-061369-0684.

Also, see: Bruce R. Joyce and Elizabeth H. Joyce. "Creating Information Systems for Children" Interchange, Vol. 1, No. 2, June 1970.

student would be backed up with an enormous support system which he could call on as he needed instruction. The young mathematician, for example, could have a great number of short courses on topics in mathematics available to him.[5]

A combination of short courses and information storage and retrieval systems would give the individual student and the group of inquiring students enormously more options than they presently have for educating themselves. In need of information, they could turn to banks of data. In need of instruction, they could turn to banks of courses.[6]

Support Systems for the Teacher

Particularly where the teacher is a central figure in a curricular organization, where he is responsible for the carrying on of instruction, he will feel the need for support systems that give him more options as an instructor and which provide his students with more options as learners. A physics teacher, for example, might like to have a set of short films which explain topics of various kinds that he has some difficulty explaining or where the medium permits a type of explanation that is very difficult for the teacher under the conditons of the classroom or his laboratory. Similarly, the teacher may want to be supported by sets of laboratory equipment that enable him to build demonstrations of various kinds and to guide the inquiry of the students into experimental areas of science. Support to the teacher may function in any of several ways. In the area of his own training, he may need substantive help (help with content) or clinical assistance (help in planning or carrying out teaching strategies). In the actual act of teaching he may require support systems that either

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[5]Dwight W. Allen and Robert Bush. A New Design for High School Education: Assuming a Flexible Schedule (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964).

[6]See: Bruce R. Joyce. The Teacher and his Staff: Man, Media and Machines (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1967) for a description of schooling which is supported in this fashion.

dramatize points, provide expertise he does not have, or bring to his students information difficult to convey within the confines of the classroom. Finally, student support systems can become supports to the teacher when they provide information sources and instruction that widen the range of instructional techniques that can be employed. (In the earlier illustration, the teacher who has document files available can teach historical documentation methods to his students in a much greater variety of ways than can a teacher who does not have such assistance.

Several examples of teacher support systems have been developed by staff at the Far West Laboratory in Berkeley. Walter Borg and his staff have developed a set of teacher training courses, called Mini-courses, that the teachers administer to themselves and which teach them new teaching strategies. These use televised exemplars of teaching strategies which the teachers practice, teaching themselves as they do and analyzing the videotapes to measure their progress. This is a very unique type of support system that can operate for the teacher.[7] At that same laboratory Glen Nimnicht and his staff have developed several kinds of support systems for kindergarten teachers. One of the most ingenious is a bank of games which can teach children how to work together to teach each other.[8] The teacher, backed up by this support, is able to maintain many small groups in a kindergarten classroom operating together and inquiring into many aspects of life. Because of the ingenuity with which the games are constructed even children of that age can be supervised

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[7]Walter Borg. "The Mini-course as a Vehicle for Changing Teacher Behavior, the Research Evidence" ED-029-809 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1969).

[8]Glen Nimnicht, John Meier, Oralie McAfee "A Summary of the Evaluation of the Experimental Program for Deprived Children at the New Nursery School Using Some Experimental Measures" Unpublished paper, December 1967, Colorado State College, Greeley, Colorado.

by a minimum of personnel. Nimnicht also, by the way, uses one version of the "talking typewriter"--another support system for children which helps them explore symbolic language until they can read and write and which, by carrying on some instructional functions, functions as a support system for the teacher.[9]

We can forecast that a major potential of television as a support system in the social studies is to provide the teacher with knowledge and teaching strategies that are very difficult for him when he operates alone. We know, for example, that if we were to introduce the study of economics or anthropology or any of the other social sciences into a large number of elementary or even secondary school classrooms today, many of the teachers would need support both in content and instruction. These could be provided to them with television. The first could be made available through presentations directed to them; the second through teaching directed to their students. In addition, banks of presentations and data sources could support them by providing greater flexibility to instruction and by giving their students more options for activity.

A Comprehensive Support: The Managerial System

It is possible to develop comprehensive curricular systems in which the options for the teacher and the student are mediated by the curricular system which plays the controlling roles.

When one of the authors was in the army he was put through a course to train him to be a medical laboratory technician. The course, administered by teachers, made extensive use of laboratory equipment,

[9] O.K. Moore's "talking typewriter," manufactured by the Edison Responsive Environment Laboratory, West Orange, New Jersey.

films, live demonstrations, and clinical practice, and it went like clockwork. At the end of the course he was made an instructor and was permitted to see the manual from which the course had been constructed. He discovered to his supprise (how naive he must have been) that the entire program of activities had been specified step by step in that manual. From the first activity to the last, the students were put through a very pleasant, extremely efficient and quite humane sequence of activities that was administered by instructors who gave the illusion of having much independence but who indeed were simply following very detailed orders. Their manual was the managerial support system.

It is possible to build curricular systems in which television occupies the managerial role. For example, an American history course could be televised, with corollary readings and activities specified. Teachers and students could work in discussion groups or inquiry groups out of the central framework. The major sets of lectures, dramatization of historical incidents, and even presentation of original sources could be conducted through the medium.

Because in recent years a large number of curriculum projects have employed managerial support systems a number of educators have raised questions about student and teacher freedom within curriculum frameworks. Most of the products of the academic reform movement which has been going on in the United States since the middle 1950's are text and laboratory materials systems which are comprehensive in nature. Many of them actually provide so many materials and such detailed instructions that if the teacher administers the program in anything like the way it is presented, then he will exercise few options not specified in the program unless things begin to go very badly. However, comprehensive programs differ

greatly in the range of options they give to teachers and students, ranging from much to little participant latitude. It seems to us that the critical question is not whether controlling curricular systems should be employed, but when they should be employed and to what end. To bring new content or new teaching strategies into schools, highly structured curriculums may be necessary, at least for a time, until local personnel develop the ability to handle the material and teach with comfort and flexibility. However, the kinds of learning which spring from local events and ideas cannot be imposed by a system external to the particular students and their teachers. The question is one of balance.

Most social studies textbooks are designed as complete courses and publishers usually insist that this be the case. The series of essays in Social Studies in the United States[10] indicated that in every curriculum nook and cranny within the entire social studies field the bulk of textbook materials are expected to be controlling and comprehensive guides to the course. This is, amazingly enough, true even in kindergarten and first grade materials.

It is possible to design a comprehensive curricular system in which television or another media (or combination of media) would have a managerial role and yet provide much latitude for the teacher and the student. The media could be used to fill instructional functions which neither the teacher nor the student fill well whereas the personal and group inquiry of teacher and students as they interact together could be carried on under the umbrella of the course. Cabinets in Crisis, a series developed

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[10] Byron Massialas and Benjamin Cox (Eds.) Social Studies in the United States (New York: Harcourt,Brace, 1967).

by the Foreign Policy Association in collaboration with the Twenty-One Inch Classroom in Boston, is heuristic in this regard.[11] The program focused on broadcasts of simulated United States Cabinet meetings during periods of crisis. At various stages during the deliberations, the cabinet meetings were broken off. Classes of students would debate the events and then could call in to the studio recommending various courses of action. The consequences of these suggestions were then explored so that the students could see the implications of their actions. Thus, although there was considerable emphasis on the managerial role of live television, there was considerable latitude for student and teacher participation. Television served to introduce to both teachers and children ideas which they probably otherwise would not have encountered and to bring them information which they probably otherwise would not have had available to them. At the same time, the strategy that was used permitted teachers and the students to interact in the game-like situation in such a way that they were by no means controlled by the curricular system but affected its development.

Three concepts are useful in planning managerial support systems: the comprehensiveness of the curriculum plan, or the proportion of activities which are planned, the extent of student and teacher options which are developed, and the nature of the managerial system (the media combination which is used and the type of management which is exercised).

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[11] Cabinets in Crisis, television series developed by Foreign Policy Association, New York, New York and presented in cooperation with station WGBX in Boston, April 25-May 23, 1968.

Applying Television to Social Studies

The three support roles for television can be applied to a wide range of curricular objectives or missions and a considerable range of teaching strategies. To plan a curriculum that will employ television effectively requires that we clarify the ends we will seek and the strategies we will use to achieve them. In the next two chapters we turn to an analysis of alternative missions and means for the social studies, after which we will turn to our recommendations which apply television, in each of the support roles, to specific social studies ends and means.

CHAPTER TWO

Analyzing Curriculum Missions in the Social Studies

Television can be employed either to strengthen existing program patterns or to initiate new ones. Because there is presently a healthy diversity of new approaches to the social studies, and an even wider range of possible alternatives, the analysis of existing and potential social studies programs is somewhat complex. Yet the very multitude of possible approaches increases the importance of such an analysis, simply because when we plan for television to support particular patterns or use it to help create a new one, we may affect the directions and methods of social studies education to a significant extent. The social studies curriculum area presently is in great need of strengthening and it is critically important that social studies planners put the energy of television into the social studies with telling effect.

To make the task of analyzing social studies approaches both more manageable and meaningful in terms of selecting patterns of support for television, we have divided the analysis into three stages: the identification of the missions or goal complexes of social studies programs; the strategies, or pedagogic approach used in various programs; and the support-system possibilities that exist with respect to television. In this chapter we will deal with the first stage, that is, we will analyze alternative

missions for the social studies. In Chapter One we examined the three general ways that television can serve as a support system for various approaches to the social studies. In Chapter Three we will examine social studies teaching strategies. In the last chapter we will bring together missions, means, and support roles and make a series of recommendations for action.

To communicate with the reader who may "know" television but not the social studies, some history may be in order to set a context for interpreting the present diverse scene which is emerging in the social studies. For many years, from the nineteen twenties until the nineteen sixties, social studies curriculum patterns were relatively homogeneous across the nation.[12] As in most curriculum areas, there was some disparity between what was recommended by theoreticians and what was actually done in the schools, but theory and practice were partially related, particularly with respect to the placement of content through the school years. Because these long-time patterns are still influential, if only as the historical background of the present ferment, it is well that we begin with them.

The Mission and Methods of the Social Studies, 1920-1960

Theoretically, the chief mission of the social studies was seen to be the preparation of citizens for the United States democracy .

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[12]For an analysis of the cause of the homogeneity and the rationalization of the patterns, see: Bruce R. Joyce's "The Primary Grades in Social Studies in the United States," Byron Massialas and Benjamin Cox (Eds.), op. cit.

The programs were constructed to accomplish this mission through both the content that was taught and the general methods that were recommended.

Methods: The democratic process.

The best preparation for democracy, it was argued, was to practice it. The basic teaching method was to organize classes into problem-solving, democratic groups. The courses would be organized, from the primary grades through the high school, around social problems, or social needs, or the task of understanding human society and grappling with its development. The teacher was to help the students define and attack problems, teaching them democratic procedures simultaneously with the mastery of content.[13]

Nowhere was the dichotomy between theory and practice more prominent than in the area of method. The democratic method flourished in a few schools and classrooms, but in the majority of situations, structured, teacher-directed teaching prevailed.[14] While curriculum guides, teachers associations, and administrators proclaimed the democratic process, most teachers found it exceedingly difficult to execute.

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[13]See: John U. Michaelis. Social Studies for Children in a Democracy (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1949).

Also: Alice Miel and Peggy Brogan. More than Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1956).

Herbert A. Thelen. Education and the Human Quest (New York: Harper, 1960).

[14]James Hoetker and William P. Ahlbrand, Jr. "The Persistence of the Recitation." American Educational Research Journal, Vol.VI, No. 2 (March 1969), pp. 145-168. Provides an excellent summary of research findings on teaching methods.

Content

In both elementary and secondary schools, the patterns of content were designed to introduce students to Western society and the social needs of man. In the elementary school, a pattern called the "expanding-horizons" approach was dominant, based on the not unreasonable assumption that the younger children are most able to grapple with content that falls within their experience, and that the social studies should expand the child's horizons to his nation and the world.

Expanding Communities of Men

(family through nation)

1. Family Community
2. School Community
3. Neighborhood Community
4. Local, County and Metropolitan Communities
5. State Community
6. Region-of-States Community
7. U.S. National Community[15]

[15] Focus on the Social Studies, A Report from the 1965 DESP Annual Meeting (Washington, D.C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1965), p. 31.

In the junior high, or middle school years, American History has been dominant, with a world geography course, treated on a regional basis, usually being offered as well. In the senior high years world history and American government were most prominent, with the world history course centered on the politics of the Western world and the treatment of government emphasizing constitutional provisions for governing agencies. A frequent offering which is of particular interest is "Problems of Democracy," a course which once was offered in over three-fourths of the nation's high schools but now is losing popularity. The Problems of Democracy course was initiated in the years after 1917 as a reaction to formalized content in history, geography, and government courses and to provide an experience based on democratic, problem-solving activity. As originally conceived, each problems-of-democracy class would identify and study significant social problems, even to the extent of planning and taking social action. This course has come under continuous fire since its inception, partly because it represented "soft" social content rather than "hard" content drawn directly from one of the disciplines and partly because, except on a limited scale, it did not live up to its intended promise. However, in a "Contemporary Social Issues" version, and in the kind of rigorous approach to a disciplined analysis of human behavior exemplified in the "Ninth Grade Course in Political Behavior" we discuss in a subsequent chapter, it is undergoing a certain revival due to the present-day concern with social problems.

Course Organization and Materials.

Two general "philosophies" competed for the internal organizations of courses and selection of instructional materials for them. One was the desire to center teaching in problem-solving, democratic processes, and this philosophy generally advocated variations on problem-centered "units" of instruction. Whether in the primary grades or in the high school, the students would seek to understand puzzling aspects of social behavior. In the first or second grade, they might try to find out how their town feeds itself, or where toys come from, or how members of families around the world behave toward one another. In the fifth or sixth grade, they might try to understand how their government has developed, or how and why wars have developed between nations. In the high schools problems of poverty, conservation, urbanization, or improving the aesthetic qualities of life might demand their attention.

The second philosophy manifested itself as a desire to organize instruction logically, so that students would master predictable bodies of knowledge. In the primary grades, this philosophy resulted in a series of pre-organized units. (The Mexican Family, the Japanese Family, Life in the Swiss Alps, the Lapland Family, etc.). By grade five, history was treated chronologically and geography regionally. The more or less logical arrangements of three disciplines (history, economic geography, and government) dominated instruction from the middle grades through the high school.

The two philosophies required very different materials for children. The problem-centered approach required open-ended resources that teachers and children could dip into, shape and arrange to suit their purposes. People and places from the community were needed, also and expert sources from all over, from pen pals to members of the Department of the Interior, were called on.[16] The logical-coverage philosophy, for its part, lent itself well to the development of the familiar social studies textbook, and the text, with "supplementary readings" and "audio-visual aids" became the mainstay in most classrooms, at least above the primary level (and even there it was by no means unknown, and the major textbook series included materials, generally resembling textbooks in the field of reading, directed to the primary school child).

The Emerging Scene and Patterns of Television Support

Until recently, the uses of instructional television could be calculated in terms of the above patterns. Television could simply be hitched to one or more of the years of the relatively standard program. For example, the Twenty-One Inch Classroom in Boston collaborated with the Foreign Policy Association to produce the series mentioned in the last chapter, Cabinets in Crisis which was tailor-made for problems of democracy courses which took a problem-centered approach. As indicated earlier, the series involved a degree of student participation via

[16] See, for example, the units developed in the Horace Mann-Lincoln School as: Tompsie Baxter and Bess M. Young - Ships and Navigation (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933).

telephone in a game-like simulation which dealt with a real historical crisis during the early years of the Cold War.

The Georgia State Department accepted the general first-grade sequence and prepared another type of program, attractive on its own terms, which places a television teacher in the usual role of the classroom teacher. The television teacher leads the children through a sequence of units, suggests activities that they and the classroom teachers can carry on, and provides visual experiences to supplement what is usually available in the classroom.

As the diversity of approaches to the social studies increases, however, identifying which patterns to support will require a more complex analysis, for the historical pattern is gradually breaking down and being replaced by a variety of approaches. Also, there are many important areas of social concern where even the new patterns are not yet functioning well--areas in which the reform programs are very difficult to implement. The television medium might be used, not only to support emerging patterns, but to initiate new forms of social education. We believe that most of the ETV effort in the social studies should be used to initiate new approaches. Initiation should begin with the selection of goals, so we begin with an analysis of several possible types of goals which we can select from.

The Goal Complexes of The Emerging Approaches To The Social Studies: The Personal, Social and Academic Domains

The last few years has brought about a number of attempts to develop new social studies programs at the elementary and secondary school level. Taken together, these approaches have been directed toward quite a number of missions or general goals. The "New" social studies is quite diverse, in fact.

The mission of an educational program can be defined in terms of the domains through which it (the program) enters into the life of the student. Since the product of education is a developed capacity to respond to reality in new ways, the primary task in selecting an educational mission is to identify the domains through which the program will enter the life of the learner in order to change his responses to living in the world.

In order to bring order to the task of analyzing social studies program missions, we have divided the possible domains into three, with the caution that the categories overlap somewhat:

The Personal Domain. We can attempt to improve the capacity of the learner through direct intervention in the personal domain, (as through an attempt to improve his capacity for self-direction and instruction, his creativity).

The Social Domain. We can attempt to enter the social domain, to change him at a point where he is in interaction with his fellowman, (as when we attempt to teach him social or economic skills).

The Academic Domain. We can attempt to reach him through an academic domain, by teaching him academic skills and ways of dealing intellectually with complexity, (as when we attempt to teach him the social sciences).

Let us use these three categories, the personal, the social and the academic, to sort out some of the possible functions of social studies programs and to generate combinations of functions that can serve as the missions or the guiding objectives of the social studies programs.

Focussing Directly on Personal Capacity: The Personal Domain

There are many ways of describing how humans respond to the environment. There is intelligence, including the ability to solve problems, to analyze and synthesize information, to build new ideas. There is creativity, or the capacity to take the environment and do new and interesting things with it. There is the organization of the inner self, the feeling of adequacy, or openness, of ability to grow and to face complexity. There is independence or autonomy--the capacity to respond fearlessly and on one's own terms. There is warmth and feelings of affiliation, that enables a comfortable and non-threatening response to others. All of these ways of describing human beings focus on personal organization or capacity--they emphasize the extent to which the individual constructs his world and the importance of the individual in the world.

An educational program can be organized to develop one or more of the personal capacities or characteristics. For example, a program may emphasize creativity and be shaped so as to do everything possible to teach students to make a creative, aesthetic response to life. Or it may be organized around the attempt to increase intelligence and rationality. Or it may focus on developing emotional stability and capacity for fulfillment.

A social studies program that sees its mission as the development of personal capacity will emphasize the individual in everything it does. It will try to challenge him, to free him, to teach him how to teach himself. Such a school may pay attention to social and academic demands, but it will focus on the personal capacity of the individual.

A large number of educational theorists have advocated interesting ways of trying to improve the students' capacity to deal with the world.

In the realm of social education, there are a few outstanding examples of approaches to social studies education that have emphasized the personal domain. We will mention only a few contemporary ones by way of illustration.

Social Education at Summerhill: A Personal Approach

In the words of A.S. Neill, "I hold that the aim of life is to find happiness, which means to find interest. Education should be a preparation of life. Our culture has not been very successful. Our education, politics, and economics lead to

war, etc...."[17] To Neill, the primary aim of education is to help the student to respond to life in his own way, with high interests, and fearlessly to develop himself in such a way that he will be fulfilled. This entire school in certain ways can be thought of as a social studies program--as a way of life which encourages students to work in their own way and to solve their own problems. This social education is devoted to the personal domain and the social needs of the school are not permitted to operate in such a way as to squelch the development of the individual. Students must choose their activities, help develop ways of working together, and are counseled on personal development. The Summerhill mission is personal development.

Individualism versus Conformity: The Adolescent Crisis

Edgar Z. Friedenberg[18] places emphasis on the personal domain in a somewhat different way than does Neill. Friedenberg is greatly concerned with the consistency of society, but he is even more concerned with some of its effects. "Being different, notoriously, does not get you to the top. If individuals must believe they are on their way there in order to preserve their self-esteem, they will be under constant pressure, initially from anxious adults and later from their own aspirations, to repudiate the divergent elements of their character in order to make it under the terms common to mass culture. They choose the path most traveled by, and that makes the difference.

[17] A.S. Neill. Summerhill (New York: Hart Publishing, 1960), p. 24.

[18] Edgar Z. Friedenberg. Coming of Age in America: Growth and Acquiescence (New York: Random House, 1965), p. 17

"To anyone who is concerned about what his life means, this pressure is repugnant."[19]

To Friedenberg, the great question in education is how to help young people to comprehend the culture and to use and improve it without having his individuality submerged. Friedenberg feels that the social education of the schools should be designed explicitly to free the personal development of the student from the enormous pressure, inherent in a technological society which has possibilities for upward mobility, to learn to conform in order to "make it" in the society. Although Friedenberg looks at education from a sociological perspective, he underlines the freeing, personal mission of the school.

Focus on the Self

Quite a number of psychologists have urged that the school pay greater attention to the developing personality of the individual. Rogers, Combs, Jersild and Shutz are examples.[20] They tend to see the activities of the school in terms of its effect on the developing organization of the personality. "Nearly everything in the curriculum is charged with psychological meaning when viewed from the standpoint of what it might do to

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[20]Arthur W. Combs. The Professional Education of Teachers (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965).

Arthur T. Jersild. In Search of Self (New York: Teachers College, 1952).

Carl Rogers. Client-Centered Therapy (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1965).

William Shutz. Joy (New York: Grove Press, 1967).

help learners find themselves, realize their potentialities, use their resources in productive ways, and enter into relationships which have a bearing on their ideas and attitudes toward themselves."[21] In their focus on the developing organization of the self these theorists recommend that the school environment be shaped in such a way as to help the student to develop his internal organization more fully, to relate to his environment without fear, and to learn how to look at himself and handle himself in such a way as to ensure his own maximum development. While they do not see this emphasis as antithetical to the needs of the society anymore than Neill or Friedenberg see their emphases as in conflict with social development, the emphasis is clearly on the development of the individual. If the mission of the school is to develop individuals more fully, a good society will result.

There are a great many other approaches to the personal domain besides those that have mentioned here, but even these few illustrations should make concrete the possibility of building social studies programs which give the personal domain the central place.

As we have stressed, the emphasis on the personal does not eschew emphasis on the social. However, for purposes of analysis let us now turn to social studies missions which focus on the social domain.

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[21] Jersild, op. cit., p. 103.

Missions in the Social Domain

It would be odd, indeed, if the social studies programs in the United States were not characterized by emphasis on the social domain, and in fact, as we have indicated earlier, the social studies were created as a reaction to formalized study that was unrelated to the needs of the society and the problems of regenerating the society. The most widely used textbook on elementary social studies begins with the following statement: "The schools of America are dedicated to the preservation and extension of democratic ideals and to the development of the highest type of democratic citizenship on the part of each child. The discharge of this responsibility requires an educational program that will develop each child's potentialities to the fullest and at the same time bring growth in the competencies essential to democratic living."[22]

The focus of the social studies is "people and their environment; they deal with human relationships. In the social studies, attention is given to ways of living and working together, use of the environment to meet basic human needs, customs, institutions, values, and life situations--the cultural heritage and its dynamic on-going characteristics."[23]

Within the social domain there are a number of possible emphases which might be seen as separate missions or might be treated together. We will look at three of these which represent distinct yet related approaches.

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[22] Michaelis, op. cit., p. 1.

[23] Ibid., p. 2.

An Emphasis on Democratic Behavior

Michaelis has provided a concise statement of this mission. "The teacher must be aware of the kind of behavior which is consistent with democratic values. Little would be gained unless the behavior that the children develop is democratic in nature...Implicit in the foregoing statement of democratic values are the following categories of behavior: responsibility, concern for others, open-mindedness, creativeness, and cooperation. Each unit of work that is planned should make a contribution to the development of the foregoing categories of behavior."[24] Michaelis also has described the democratic values which are the core of the democratic process. He specifically emphasizes the following values: "Government of a group is effective only if there is government by the group." "Human well-being, happiness and good will toward others are fundamental." "There is faith in the ability of men to govern themselves wisely." "Consent of the governed is the basic element in democratic procedure." "Self direction and self control in accordance with group welfare are significant aspects of democratic living." "Freedom of inquiry with free play of intelligence about our problems is essential". "Majority decision with minority protection is used to determine policy." "Each individual is respected and accorded equal justice and equal opportunity." "Individual freedom and responsibility go hand in hand."[25]

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[24] Ibid., p. 18.

[25] Ibid., pp. 13-18.

It should be clear without further elaboration that the promulgation of democratic values and behavior is essential to Michaelis' approach. Within this mission, most textbooks and most school district curriculum guides have emphasized the positive virtues of American Democracy, whereas many persons, concerned with social reforms, feel that a more fundamental approach is desireable, orienting students toward the reforms necessary to achieve the stated democratic values.

While there is no fundamental conflict between the orientation toward democratic behavior and the slightly different mission that follows, the distinction between them is worth noting.

An Emphasis on International Citizenship

While in no way undermining the function of American education to promote democratic citizenship, Becker and Mehlinger point out that the developing trend toward an international society requires an education which is conceptually quite different from what has been carried on before. "What would formerly have been judged to be a national problem is now believed to be an international concern. The alarm felt in the United States over the population explosion in India, China, and the nations of Latin America results not only from an interest in the welfare of the people in those nations. In part, this concern stems from the recognition that the contemporary world cannot remain peaceful if people in significant portions of the globe are left to suffer and die from hunger and disease. Similarly, problems of managing and preserving the natural environment are global

not just local in scope. Ultimately, everyone is threatened by polluted air, impure water, and dwindling natural resources. These hazards are no reaching the point where national solutions no longer suffice. Man's health and perhaps even his survival depend upon the ability of nations to take collective measures against the pollution and destruction of the environment."[26]

In other domains also, Becker, Mehlinger and their co-authors urge that the social studies orient the citizens of the United States toward the international arena and toward the collective solutions to problems. The study of international relations deserves a place of prime importance at all levels of education--primary grades through adult classes. No single set of problems confronting modern man is at once as complex and as potentially dangerous as those problems commonly included under the title, international relations. If the potential dangers could be converted into opportunities for peace and progress, all mankind would benefit. If we are unable to cope with these dangers, mankind faces the risk of destruction which is the fruit of an advanced technology in a retarded social pattern."[27]

A social studies program which accepts an international orientation as a major part of its mission is likely to be different from a social studies program which accepts democratic

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[26]James M. Becker and Howard D. Mehlinger (Eds.) International Dimensions in the Social Studies (Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, Its 38th Yearbook, 1968), p. 9.

A very recent analysis of the use of television to promote world understanding is provided in I. Keith Tyler. Television for World Understanding (Washington, D.C.: Division of Educational Technology, National Education Association, 1970).

[27]Fred A. Sondermann "Changes in the Study of International Relations" in Becker and Mehlinger, op. cit., p. 101.

process as a major part of its mission but does not emphasize international understanding, and the implications of the differences are important.

Emphasis on Interpersonal Relations in Small Groups

A third approach within the social domain emphasizes interpersonal attitudes and skills. Recently, quite a number of educators have urged that the social studies teach people how to work better and find greater fulfillment in face-to-face interpersonal situations. Shaftel, for example, has been a leader in this field for a number of years.[28] Also, those concerned with what has come to be known as sensitivity training have proposed this evidence.

As one example, Joyce and Weinberg have proposed that students be taught an analytic framework which they can apply to the analysis of interpersonal relations and that they use that analytic framework to improve the capacity to work with other individuals.[29] The Joyce-Weinberg approach is relatively cool and analytical--the student is taught to use his intellect to analyze and improve interpersonal relations.

Another intellective approach is represented by Oliver, Shaver, Newmann, and their colleagues, who have proposed that the problems of public conflict and political controversy be the focus of general education and social studies. They take

[28]Fannie R. Shaftel and George A. Shaftel. Role-Playing for Social Values: Decision-Making in the Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1967).

[29]Bruce R. Joyce. Strategies for Elementary Social Science Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1965) Chapter Five.

the position that it is in the process of dialogue that the society can achieve clarification of the value alternatives and can come to agreement on processes for implementing certain value positions.[30]

The implications of Oliver and Shaver's position for general education in the social studies are important. First, since there is no single, certain solution to social problems, the teacher is obliged to tolerate a variety of ideals, values, or creeds among his students. Furthermore, although the teacher may find a personal solution to ideological conflict, he must condone the constant discourse and even conflict among various groups within society as they are represented in the classroom. The good society is not to be construed as one in which one behaves uniformly with all others, but one which is constantly emerging through a reasoned dialogue on public issues. Also, one does not live forever within the same agreed upon substantive definition of right; rather the good society is one in which individuals in groups have wide latitude in developing their own standards and tastes--i.e., their own definitions of human dignity, but must hammer out policies which enable diversity and peacefulness to coexist. Progress from this point of view consists of longer and longer periods of non-violent conflict among groups of free men who have chosen a variety of modes of conduct exemplifying the "good life."[31]

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[30] Donald W. Oliver and James P. Shaver. Teaching Public Issues in the High School (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1966).

[31] Ibid., p. 13.

The missions proposed by Shaftel, Joyce and Weinberg, and Oliver and Shaver belong within the social domain, although they emphasize intellective approaches to the improvement of social life. Hence, they illustrate that neither the personal nor the social domain has an essential conflict with academic interests. However, to continue our analysis of alternative missions among the social studies programs, let us look at missions which appear to be primarily academic in focus, and at their relation to the other missions.

The Academic Domain and the Social Studies

Berelson puts the question: Should the social studies curriculum aim to produce good citizens or knowledgeable students of the major fields of learning?--

"My own impression is that this is a largely spurious issue that will go away if it is put into a different semantic frame. As a starter, suppose we were to say that we--all of us involved--want to give high school students the best introduction we can within limits of practicality to the best available knowledge in the social science disciplines as a means to the end of producing responsible citizens;"[32]

Although Berelson is at pains to reduce any potential dichotomy between citizenship and social science education, the contents of the book he edited impelled him to include the above statements in the preface. In this book, source papers on the social science disciplines and on world "area" studies were

[32]Bernard Berelson, et.al. The Social Studies and the Social Sciences American Council of Learned Societies and the National Council for the Social Studies (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1962)pp. 6-7.

presented to provide academic guidelines for the redevelopment of social studies curriculums. The tone of many of the articles suggests an extremely academic emphasis. The position taken is that the social sciences are to be taught qua such with the assumption that the student, armed with concepts and modes of inquiry from the disciplines, can make his own transfer to social problems. Sykes' words illustrate this point as he writes about the relation between sociology and the social sciences.

"The difficulty is that many teachers of sociology in colleges and universities doubt at the present time that their discipline is adequately represented in the high school regardless of whether it is called social studies or something else--and regardless of whether the work in the high school is a preparation for more advanced training or the end of academic schooling."[33]

He goes on to say, "The reluctance of the college teacher to convert sociology into a tool for the production of good citizens is coupled with qualms about stressing the immediate material benefits of social studies for the individual. If an examination of the community's occupational structure becomes a form of instruction for the techniques of job seeking, if an analysis of the family is transformed into a course in better family living, or if the study of the American economy is seen as a sort of consumer's guide, the professional sociologist is apt to feel that his field is being subverted...."[34]

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[33] Gresham M. Sykes. "Sociology" in Bernard Berelson, et.al. The Social Studies and the Social Sciences American Council of Learned Societies and the National Council for the Social Studies (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1962), p. 157.

[34] Ibid., p. 159.

Sykes goes on to argue that nothing but confusion can result from equating the objective study of society with the means for securing the good life. A knowledge of society may prove useful to the student. But this is not necessarily the result, and excessive concern with this result carries the danger that the content of sociology will be distorted. Sykes' view is that the academic mission of the social studies is independent of social and personal missions and can be justified on its own terms.

While most social scientists probably agree more with Berelson's view than with Sykes' position, the use of the academic domain as the means for citizenship education is still quite a different way of entering into the life of the learner than one that focuses on personal characteristics or on processes of social behavior. Let us look at two or three approaches which have emphasized particular disciplines.

An Approach to Anthropology in the Elementary School

The Anthropology Curriculum Project of the University of Georgia under the direction of Marion Rice at the University of Georgia has prepared materials for introducing students to the organizing ideas of anthropology in grades one to seven.

To quote from the Teachers' Guide for the grade four materials, the Rationale of the Anthropology Curriculum Project is based upon several premises...

> 1. Any field of knowledge, such as anthropology, consists of a system of symbols, or word labels, which are used to express ideas and describe relationships. An understanding or mastery of any field of knowledge begins with an understanding of the symbol system, the meaning of which expands

and develops as the knowledge of the discipline is extended.

2. Symbol systems are usually organized for transmission of a core of congruent ideas, usually referred to as subject matter, discipline, or field. For almost thirty years the social studies movement has contended that a subject approach to the transmission of social studies is inappropriate for the elementary grades. (We believe that) any type of organization of material, irrespective of its method, is designed to transmit knowledge, and that there is nothing incompatible, except preference and tradition, with a subject presentation of a social science in the elementary grades.

3. Anthropological material is frequently used in the public school, but, in the absence of emphasis on anthropological concepts and terminology, the contribution that anthropology has to make to an understanding of man and of different cultures is frequently obscured. The material deliberately introduces anthropological terminology which may at first be somewhat difficult for the student. As his familiarity with these terms increases, however, it is expected that they will help him to organize and interpret in a more meaningful manner the world in which he lives.[35]

This general rationale can be specifically implemented in the objectives for the fourth grade unit:

1. To gain some insight into the way an anthropologist studies people.

2. To obtain a general idea of the concept of culture.

3. To learn that culture is universal. Culture is universal and people everywhere have the same basic problems of survival and getting along with people. However, each group of people or culture develops its own solution to these problems and these solutions may vary greatly in detail. (Cultural universals and cultural variation)

4. To understand how people learn the traits of their culture. (Enculturation)

5. To acquire an idea of how cultures change and grow. Cultures may continue for a long period of time, but change does take place. (Cultural dynamics)[35]

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[35] Anthropology Curriculum Project. The Concept of Culture: Teachers Guide, Grade Four (Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, 1965), pp. 1-2.

It can be seen that the approach the anthropology project has taken does not eschew the development of citizenship behavior, but the approach is a primarily academic one through the teaching of the structure of the discipline of anthropology. The above quotations indicate that the creators of the project recognize the controversy over academic domain points of entry for elementary school children, but they clearly believe that academic entry is quite appropriate for elementary school folks.

There are quite a number of approaches to the disciplines-oriented social studies. Some are built around one or two disciplines as is the case with the Georgia project. Other approaches, such as the University of Minnesota Social Studies project, Edith West, Director, emphasize a blend from several disciplines plus objectives from the personal and social domains.[36] So we can classify academic approaches as representing <u>one</u> or <u>more than one</u> discipline and in terms of their deliberate relatedness to the personal and the social.

In addition, some approaches emphasize the system of ideas from a discipline--its intellectual structure. Others emphasize the modes of inquiry of the discipline--the ideas and research methods that are used by research scholars to add to and revise knowledge in the field. Still others emphasize both the structure <u>and</u> modes of inquiry of the discipline. Hence, academic domain approaches can be described in terms of the <u>number</u> of disciplines involved, the <u>aspect</u> of the disciplines (structure or modes of inquiry), and, of course, the relation to the other domains.

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[36] Edith West. <u>Preparation and Evaluation of Social Studies Curriculum Guides and Materials for Grades K-14</u>, ED (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1969).

At present, there are more than thirty curriculum projects which are built around one or more of the social sciences. To implement many of them television could be used in one or more support roles. In fact, unless television or another equally powerful medium or combination of media is built into the curriculum plans, it is exceedingly unlikely that many--perhaps any--of them will be implemented properly.

Classifying the Social Studies Approaches According to the Three Domains

It is not possible to describe in detail the missions of all of the social studies approaches which are presently emerging. However, the following list provides a classification of many of the approaches that are now achieving national visibility and sources are provided so that the reader of this document can relate to these approaches in terms of the types of missions that they represent. It should be emphasized, however, that the approaches of very few social studies programs belong in one domain alone. Particularly, many creators of approaches that emphasize one domain feel that their approach has effects in the other domains. However, we believe that the actual differences in emphasis are sufficient to warrant the distinctions which arise when we group the approaches under the three domains.

The approaches described are taken either from curriculum development activities, the writings of theorists, or research activity.

The Personal Domain

This domain is emphasized in:

1. The preventive psychiatry research at the University of Iowa, Ralph Ojemann, Director. Materials have been prepared to help children analyze and improve their development.

2. Approaches to role playing developed by Fanny and George Shaftel, Stanford University emphasize growth in empathy, role-taking ability, and interpersonal capacity.

3. The writings of John Holt, William Schutz, and George B. Leonard emphasize the personal domain.

4. The writings of Alice Miel provide another approach to the personal domain. (See: More than Social Studies)

The Social Domain

1. The Harvard Social Studies project, Donald Oliver, Director emphasizes an intellectual framework for analyzing public issues.

2. The Foreign Policy Association has spawned a number of programs which emphasize the social domain, particularly with respect to international relations also.

3. The Glens Falls Project of the National Council for the Social Studies in the Glens Falls, New York Public School System emphasized international relations also.

4. Leonard Kenworthy advocates intercultural study from the primary years on. (See: Introducing Children to the World)

5. Training group approaches are described in T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method by Benne, Gibb and Bradford. These emphasize a variety of ways of helping people cope with interpersonal problems and develop greater interpersonal capacity. Schutz and Leonard (see [3] above) emphasize "encounter group" approaches to increasing interpersonal awareness and capacity, also.

6. An interesting book in the social domain, Dale L. Brubaker, Social Studies in a Mass Society emphasizes the problems of mass society.

7. The Chicago Anthropology Project, while apparently based on the discipline of anthropology, has emphasized problems of freedom and authority in American culture and other similar major issues involved in understanding of the society. They do not employ a sequenced approach to the discipline so much as a social issues approach.

8. Mario Fantini and Gerald Weinstein. Toward a Contact Curriculum (New York: The Ford Foundation, 1967) emphasizes basic social concerns as the point of entry.

9. The Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs has developed a number of diverse approaches in civics education. Current work emphasizes approaches to the study of race and culture in American life.

10. Ethnic and racial relations is the mission of many curriculums. Jean Grambs has developed a comprehensive guide to contemporary approaches and relevant literature.

The Academic Domain

1. The Georgia Anthropology Project, described above.

2. The Elkhart Economics Project is built around the basic concepts of economics.

3. The Carnegie History Project, Edwin Fenton, Director, has emphasized the methodology of historians as an inductive entry to the study of American society.

4. The High School Geography Project is developing materials for tenth-grade geography courses emphasizing the structure and approaches of geographers.

5. Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools is an extensive project based on sociology as a discipline.

6. The Michigan Social Science Project. This is an unusual project which employs the strategies of social psychology and attempts to teach them to elementary school children.

7. The Asian Studies Project of Berkeley, John Michaelis, Director employs area studies techniques to approach Asia.

8. Mark Krug has written a book entitled, History in the Social Sciences which particularly empahsizes the responsibility for the teaching of history as a discipline and contrasts this with other approaches to the discipline.

9. The Minnesota Social Studies Project, Edith West, Director. As indicated above, it utilized objectives drawn from the social sciences and from civics education and combined these in a number of interesting ways, entwining social issues and social science concepts as points of entry.

10. The High School Curriculum Center in Government, Howard Mehlinger, Director, is developing courses on American Political Behavior for the ninth grade and Comparative Political Systems for the twelfth grade. Both political science concepts and techniques of inquiry are emphasized as focuses.

The above list is partial--it is barely illustrative. Over thirty curriculum projects are listed in the bibliography and that list does not begin to indicate all the approaches that we can find emerging in school districts throughout the United States. (In the area of Black Studies alone, there are numerous emerging developments in all three domains as personal identity through study of the heritage, social development through Black Identity, and academic study using historians' techniques.) The task of the curriculum planner is to become acquainted with the particular kinds of missions that characterize the alternative emerging approaches and to sort out from among the possibilities the ones which will be implemented. Neither a social studies curriculum nor a television series for general use should be planned without a careful selection from the alternative possible missions.

The Implications of the Different Missions

It should be apparent that no one television effort, even a major one, can support curriculum efforts representing all the possibilities within the three domains. A senior high course only represents about 120 hours of instruction. It can scarcely focus on two or three possibilities in each domain and do any of them justice. Primary school children receive much less social studies instruction than do secondary school children and too many missions would diffuse a primary approach to the point of ineffectiveness.

Consequently, curriculum efforts utilizing television must, of necessity, be selective in the missions which are supported. A metropolitan area television series, or even several series, cannot provide effective support to more than a few very closely integrated missions. Missions representing two or even three domains can be integrated, of course, as in the case of a course which combines a sociological (academic) approach to racial (social) problems and helps students clarify personal values and understand their own biases and positions. However, it takes great skill to design a complex mission without losing focus.

Not only are there many possible missions, but the differences among many of them are educationally significant. For example, a curriculum designed to help adolescents understand and cope with identity crises is focused very differently from one which is designed to help students comprehend and solve urban problems. Both of these are quite different in potential from a course to help students learn how anthropologists study the nature of man. Of course, they can all have an ultimate relation (anthropology studies problems of identity and urbanization and identity are related, etc.). But the hoped for outcome of these approaches are markedly different.

Moreover, if curriculum planners in the social studies learn to harness television properly, it is likely to increase rather than to decrease the implications of different missions, because well-used television should increase the effectiveness of the curriculums.

Hence, the social studies curriculum-maker should not be casual in his selection of direction--as by automatically supporting one approach or curriculum project because it is local or well-publicized. The different possible missions represent very real potential differences in the lives of children and service to the society.

CHAPTER THREE

Teaching Strategies: The Means of Social Studies Programs

To accomplish a mission in the social studies field, we employ means which we currently refer to as teaching strategies. For every possible mission we can select from a number of interesting strategies. The teaching strategies which can be employed in the social studies provide television with many exciting and potentially powerful opportunities to help accomplish a wide range of social studies missions. Further, television can provide quite different kinds of roles in relation to various teaching strategies. Some strategies can be mediated over television. Others can simply be assisted.

Complex teaching strategies have been difficult to implement in the social studies and it may be possible to use television to expand the range of possible strategies in the social studies as well as their power. To identify the possibilities, we have developed a framework for describing teaching strategies. In this section we present this framework, classify and illustrate a number of teaching strategies in the social studies. The strategies discussed are flexible ones which can be used for many ends. They are presented to identify the range of strategies around which we can structure curricula and the specific ways television can be related to the means of the social studies.

Let us begin with some definitions. A teaching strategy is simply a definable means-ends relationship in a curriculum. It consists of a particular means and relates it to certain educational ends. It structures learning activities whatever the medium and whoever the teacher. For example, an inductive teaching strategy can be mediated over television, or in self-instructional systems, or in a simulator [a device built to simulate the real world], in a tutorial relationship between one teacher and one learner, or in a group cooperative inquiry in which a number of learners collaborate with one or more teachers to inquire into the world. The strategy defines the shape of the educational activity, whereas the media, the training agents, the relationships between people and technology, and the content provide the substance of the activity. It should not be assumed that all media and strategies are equally compatible. One of our tasks is to determine which strategies are most effectively supported by television and other media.

Let us begin our analysis by looking at several particular teaching strategies.

The Identification of Teaching Strategies

Social studies curriculums have employed a fairly large number of strategies. In our work at Teachers College, we have identified over 20 distinct strategies, each of which has its own rationale and structure and they originate in several sources.[37] Some of the strategies are based on learning theories.

[37] For an identification and description of a wide range of strategies, see: Bruce R. Joyce and Marsha Weil. Models of Teaching (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1970).

Others come from conceptions of group processes. Still others are organized around conceptions of the disciplines. Here, we will concentrate on a half dozen fairly representative teaching strategies as they have been used in the social studies. These are:

1. An inductive teaching strategy
2. A teaching strategy drawn from a model of group investigation
3. A simulation strategy
4. Programmed instruction
5. A strategy developed from an analysis of the research methods of social psychology
6. An expository strategy.

Then, we attempt to classify several of the current approaches to the social studies in terms of the particular teaching strategies that they use.

It is worth noting that a great many attractive teaching strategies never come to fruition because support systems are not developed to back them up. The powerful support-system potential possessed by television should make it possible to implement a much wider range of teaching strategies than has been the case in the past. Hence, as we describe teaching strategies we will be at particular pains to analyze how television can be employed to buttress and implement them.

Taba's Inductive Strategies
A Model Derived from Analysis of a Mental Process

The late Hilda Taba was probably more responsible than any one else for the popularization of the term "teaching strategy," and in her work with the Contra Costa school district she provided a first rate example of the development of a teaching

strategy from a model of an intellectual process, for she developed a teaching strategy around inductive thinking and used the strategy as the backbone of a social studies curriculum.[38]

Taba analyzed thinking from a psychological and logical point of view, and came to the following conclusion. "While the processes of thought are psychological and hence subject to psychological analysis, the product and the content of thought must be assessed by logical criteria and evaluated by the rules of logic."[39] She identified several postulates about thinking as an "active transaction between the individual and the data in the program."

"This means that in the classroom setting the materials of instruction become available to the individual mainly through his performing certain cognitive operations upon them: organizing facts into conceptual systems, relating points in data to each other and generalizing upon these relationships, making inferences and using known facts in generalization to hypothesize, predict, and explain unfamiliar phenomena. From this it follows that mental operations cannot be taught in the sense of being 'given by the teacher' or of being acquired by absorbing someone else's thought products. The teacher can only assist the processes of internalization and conceptualization by stimulating the students to perform their requisite processes while offering progressively less and less direct support from the external stimulator."[40] Taba's third idea was that the processes of

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[38] Hilda Taba. Teacher's Handbook for Elementary Social Studies (PaloAlto: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1967), Chapters I-IV.

[39] Ibid., p. 36.

[40] Ibid., p. 34.

thought evolve by a sequence that could not be reversed. Therefore, "this concept of lawful sequences requires teaching strategies that observe these sequences."[41] In other words, Taba concluded that specific teaching strategies needed to be designed for specific thinking skills and that, furthermore, these strategies need to be applied sequentially because thinking skills arise sequentially.

She developed a set of cognitive tasks, or thinking tasks, and then developed sets of teaching moves, called teaching strategies, which would induce those tasks. To illustrate this, let us look at one of these--the task of concept formation. This cognitive task involves grouping those items according to some basis of similarity. Last, it involves the development of categories and labels for the groups. In order to cause students to engage in each one of these activities within the tasks, Taba identified teaching moves in the form of questions which she called "eliciting questions" which would be likely to cause the student to engage in the appropriate type of activity. For example, the question, "What did you see?" might induce the student to enumerate a list. The question, "What belongs together?" is likely to cause people to group those things which have been enumerated or listed. The question, "What would you call these groups?" would be likely to induce people to develop labels or categories.

Thus, the concept-formation strategy is designed around the process of concept formation which serves as the model for the strategy. The first phase is "enumeration," the second is "grouping," and the third is "developing categories." The

[41] Ibid., p. 35.

teacher guides the development by the use of appropriate eliciting questions. The social atmosphere is cooperative, with much pupil activity, but the teacher is the initiator of phases and controls information flow. The teacher's main task is to be sure to match his moves or eliciting questions to the specific cognitive tasks, and to be sure that the cognitive tasks occur in order. That is, the teacher should not direct a grouping question to a person who has not yet enumerated or listed, and if the teacher is operating with a group, he must be sure that the enumeration and listing is completed and understood by all before proceeding to the grouping questions. The prominent moves by the teachers are questions, and they are eliciting questions modelled after the cognitive functions.

Taba developed strategies to function in curricular systems and also to guide teachers as they developed and carried out units and lessons. In all probability, the same strategies could be adapted to structure media-based instructional systems. For example, television-mediated lessons could follow the concept-formation paradigm which Taba described. Data could be transmitted through television and television could trigger the mental operations on the data. However, because teacher and learner would not be in direct contact, the strategy would have to be modified or employ in certain roles teachers who work directly with the learners.

Television and Inductive Strategies

Clearly, television as a support system for inductive instruction would not resemble the "lectures on the screen" that has characterized so much educational television. A series organized inductively might present data (as a telecast on an aspect of a culture), then show a social scientist examining similar data, then lead the students into analytic activity of their own. Imagine, for example, a third grade examining family life in several cultures. Samples of families-in-interaction could be presented, followed by category-building activity and then by presentation to the children, by social scientists, of their analyses. A high school series on confrontation politics might follow a similar pattern, with samples of confrontations followed by student analysis and scholarly analysis for comparison.

Cooperative Inquiry Strategy

Let us turn now to a teaching strategy derived from a model of social behavior.

The most common example we have of the derivation of teaching strategy from social process is the translations that have been made of conceptions of democratic process into teaching method. Dewey's Democracy and Education[42] recommended that the entire school be organized as a miniature democracy in which students would participate in the development of the social system, and would, through this participation, gradually learn how to

[42]John Dewey. Democracy and Education (New York: MacMillan, 1916).

apply the scientific method to the perfection of human society, and would thus be prepared for citizenship in a democracy. Dewey's conceptions as indicated earlier, have been prominent in the development of the social studies and the democratic approach has been thoroughly described by John U. Michaelis, who made central to the method of teaching the creation of a democratic group which would define and attack problems of social significance.[43]

Herbert Thelen of the University of Chicago also has translated a democratic process model into a teaching strategy. Thelen begins with a set of postulates. He has a social image of man, "a man who builds with other men the rules and agreements that constitute social reality."[44] He sees the necessity for each individual to contribute "to the establishment and modification of the rules...to determine both its prohibitions and freedoms for action."[45] He believes that the rules of conduct in all fields are interpreted within a larger body of ideas, ideals, resources, and plans that constitute the culture of a society. "In groups and societies a cyclical process exists: individuals, interdependently seeking to meet their needs, must establish a social order (and in the process they develop groups and societies). The social order determines in varying degrees what ideas, values and actions are possible, valid, and 'appropriate.'

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[43] John U. Michaelis, op. cit.

[44] Herbert A. Thelen. Education and the Human Quest (New York: Harper, 1961), p. 80.

[45] Ibid., p. 80.

Working within these rules, and stimulated by the need for rules, the culture develops. The individual studies his reaction to the rules, and reinterprets them to discover their meaning for the way of life he seeks. Through this quest, he changes his own way of life, and this, in turn, influences the way of life of others; but as the way of life changes, the rules must be revised, and new controls and agreements have to be hammered out and incorporated in the social order."[46] Thelen feels that education has failed to capitalize on this model largely because it has failed to realize that knowledge is a part of the continuous business of negotiating and renegotiating the social order. Some people have made the error of attempting to teach knowledge without teaching the process of negotiation by which it is manufactured and revised. However, he proposes...

"The educational model based on these working suppositions is Group Investigation. Given a group of students and a teacher in a classroom, some sort of social order, classroom culture, and 'climate' is bound to develop. It may develop around the basic value of comfort, of politeness and middle class morals and manners, or of keeping the teacher happy and secure. In these all to frequent cases the gaining of knowledge collapses to the learning of information, the meaning of information is respectively to stimulate bull sessions, develop conformity, or provide the teacher with materials to show off with.

"We propose instead that the teacher's task is to participate in the activities of developing the social order in the classroom for the purpose of orienting it to inquiry, and that the 'house rules' to be developed are the methods and attitudes of the

[46] Ibid., p. 80.

knowledge disciplines to be taught. The teacher influences the emerging social order toward inquiry when he 'brings out' and capitalizes on differences in the way students act and interpret the role of investigator--which is also the role of members in the classroom group. Under these conditions, the gaining of knowledge could serve initially only to validate the student's portrayal of the investigator role; but as the way of life of inquiring comes to dominate the social order, the purpose of gaining knowledge--which by then will be inseparable (but not identical) with meeting personal needs in the group--will have a powerful appeal in itself. And, of course, knowledge learnt in its essential, even if microcosmic, social context will be utilizable in the larger arena as well."[47]

Thelen goes on to postulate the particular elements of a teaching strategy. "The first requirement for group investigation is a teachable group: one which can develop a sense of common cause, one whose members can stimulate each other, and one whose members are psychologically compatible and complementary. The students are assigned a consultant (teacher) who confronts them with a stimulus situation to which they can react and discover basic conflicts among their attitudes, ideas, and modes of perception. On the basis of this information, they identify the problem to be investigated, analyze the roles required to solve it, organize themselves to take these roles, act, report and evaluate the results. These steps are illuminated by reading, possibly by some short-range personal investigation, and by

[47] Ibid., p. 81.

consultation with experts. The group is concerned with its own effectiveness, with its discussion of its own process as related to the goals of the investigation."[48]

Cooperative Inquiry and Television

Television could not very likely provide the only types of support needed by cooperative inquiry, but the supports it could provide are important and powerful. The presentation of the puzzling incidents or confrontations could be accomplished using the dramatic possibilities of television. (We can recall the Cabinets in Crisis format, with television presenting the cabinet in the midst of serious controversy.) Television can also mediate ways of analyzing reactions to the incident by providing inquiring groups with contact with each other and also with experts. Banks of televised data sources can provide fuel for the inquiry. If many classroom groups are engaged in inquiry over the same issues, they can share their perplexities and progress through the television medium.

Simulation as a Teaching Strategy

There is a veritable explosion of the use of simulation in social studies programs. Especially since Guetzkow and his associates developed an inter-nation simulation game and James Coleman and his associates developed the Legislative Game, there have been a great number of efforts to apply simulation as a teaching strategy in the social studies.

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[48] Ibid., p. 82.

Simulation is one of the devices that came out of the application of cybernetic training psychology to the training of servicemen during World War II.[49] Because so many of the processes for which the psychologists were developing training programs were critical and were also exceedingly complex, the training problem was very difficult. For example, the pilot of a large bomber could make mistakes during training that could cost his life, the lives of the crewmen and instructors, and the loss of precious aircraft. So the psychologists began to build machines which could realistically simulate the conditions under which the trainee was to perform, so that they could train him under authentic conditions but without the severe consequences that his mistakes would otherwise involve. Devices such as the Link Trainer evolved from this, and they improved the training process because the simulator not only provided authenticity and thus realistic training without the severe consequences of the real situation, but the simulator permitted the training program to introduce simplified problems until the trainee was able to cope with complex ones. For example, a flight simulator could simulate weather conditions of various kinds, one at a time and then in combination. The pilot could be led through maneuvers more simple than an actual aircraft performs and build skill until he was able to carry on more complex maneuvers.

Applied to education, simulation has most frequently been of the "game type," involving development of a realistic game

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[49] Karl U. Smith and Mary Foltz Smith. Cybernetic Principles of Learning and Educational Design (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966).

in which the players act out roles which are authentic to the area concerned. For example, in inter-nation simulation[50] the participants operate as teams which represent various countries. They are given various types of foreign relations problems to solve (Should they conclude certain treaties with other countries?) and are given information about the various nations and their history of foreign relations. The simulated countries in the games represent actual combinations of nations and their relationships represent also the actual types of relationships that we find among various countries. As the players make decisions, the game provides for them to undergo the consequences of their decisions and these consequences (the feedback aspect of the game) are developed realistically. For example, if a country concludes a trade agreement with another country, it may find that a third country will then reciprocate or retaliate in some way as by cutting off trade, just as this kind of thing happens in international relations. Hence, by playing the game the participants gradually become acquainted with the "rules" or the actual principles which govern international relations in this case as they actually take place.

Television and Simulation Strategies

The high-information potential of television and its capacity for drama offers much to assist the realism needed by simulation. In addition, feedback to participants can be given

[50] Harold Guetzkow et al. Simulation in International Relations: Developments for Research and Teaching (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1963).

over television and the work of referees can be achieved through television. In addition, a game can be "paced or moved through its phases by television mediation.

Also, students in widely-separated places can be linked over television to play complex games simulating political or economic activity, a la Inter-nation Simulation.

Sequenced Programs of Instruction: An Example of a Behavior Shaping Strategy

The behavior-shaping learning theorists of whom B.F. Skinner has been the most articulate spokesman have developed a number of approaches to education, of which the best known in recent years is programmed instruction.[51] Essentially, the principles of programming are fairly simple, and they are so well known that we will give them only a cursory treatment here. Chiefly, we will use the example of the development of the curriculum type known as IPI or Individually Prescribed Instruction which has been developed at the Research and Development Center at the University of Pittsburgh and is being disseminated by Research for Better Schools, the Regional Laboratory in Philadelphia.[52]

"The Learning Research and Development Center of the University of Pittsburgh, in collaboration with the Baldwin-Whitehall School District, designed a program for the Oakleaf School in suburban Pittsburgh. The school served as the setting for a careful study of this unusual educational plan, which

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[51] B.F. Skinner. Verbal Behavior (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957).

[52] Research for Better Schools, Individually Prescribed Instruction (Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, 1966).

contrasts markedly with the one just described. The program was developed to implement the following set of assumptions about the learning process:

1. One obvious way in which pupils differ is in the amount of time and practice that it takes to master given instructional objectives.

2. One important aspect of providing for individual differences is to arrange conditions so that each student can work through the sequence of instructional units at his own pace and with the amount of practice that he needs.

3. If a school has the proper types of study materials, elementary school pupils, working in a tutorial environment that emphasizes self-learning, can learn with a minimum amount of direct teacher instruction.

4. In working through a sequence of instructional units, no pupil should be permitted to start work on a new unit until he has acquired a specified minimum degree of mastery of the material in the units identified as prerequisite to it.

5. If pupils are to be permitted and encouraged to proceed at individual rates, it is important for both the individual pupil and the teacher that the program provide for frequent evaluations of pupil progress which can provide a basis for the development of individual instructional prescriptions.

6. Professionally trained teachers are employing themselves most productively when they are performing such tasks as instructing individual pupils or small groups, diagnosing pupil needs, and planning instructional programs rather than carrying out such clerical duties as keeping records, scoring tests, and so on. The efficiency and economy of a school program can be increased by employing clerical help to relieve teachers of many non-teaching duties.

7. Each pupil can assume more responsibility for planning and carrying out his own program of study than is permitted in most classrooms.

8. Learning can be enhanced, both for the tutor and the one being tutored, if pupils are permitted to help one another in certain ways.

"The first step in developing the program was to draw up a precise statement of the goals. Academic goals dominated. It was assumed that any given block of subject matter can be divided and subdivided logically into smaller units that can be taught sequentially until the original block has been mastered. Hence a sequence was carefully designed in each of three curriculum areas (reading, arithmetic, and science) so that one element of learning would build on another to a final, significant gain in content mastery. This process was so complex and detailed that the objectives for reading filled 38 pages of text and the objectives for arithmetic over fifty pages. The following excerpt is one small series from the reading sequence; it illustrates the minute detail of the curriculum plan:

Level F

Phonetic Analysis

1. Discriminate between the initial and final sounds of words.
2. Substitute letters and blends in the initial and final positions to form words.
3. Review long and short vowel sounds in open and closed syllables, at the end of words or syllables, in medial position.
4. Review vowel sounds when other than short or long.
5. Differentiate auditorily and visually three-letter consonant blends.
6. Recognize that the digraph ea followed by r always has a special sound as in earth, dirt, corn, harp, care.
7. Recognize that silent e at the end of a word preceded by a consonant sometimes makes the preceding vowel long(hate).

8. Recognize that c followed by i, e, and y makes an s sound (soft).

9. Recognize that c followed by a, o, and u makes a hard sound.

10. Identify words with the same sound which do not look similar (x, cks).

"Thus we see that content for the program was spelled out in great detail and was ordered sequentially well in advance of the time teacher and student would come together. The academic disciplines undergirding the reading, arithmetic, and science curriculums were the sole sources of the program's content objectives.

"The next step in the program was to develop materials that the student could use to achieve each objective. These were mostly self-study materials, that is, materials that a student could pursue by himself with minimal assistance from the teacher: worksheets, individual readers, programmed books, and taped lessons played on cartridge-loading tape recorders. In addition to the self-instruction, however, the program did call upon the teacher to offer some of her own instruction to small and large groups and to individuals. The overall teaching strategy, then, was pre-sequenced self-instruction adjusted and supplemented by the teacher as the need arose.

"The next step was to develop a system for bringing the students together with the appropriate learning materials. At the beginning of the academic year a portion of the school day was spent on placement testing. It was essential to find out exactly what abilities each pupil had in each of the many areas in reading, arithmetic, and science. In arithmetic, for example,

sequenced materials had been developed for each topic, such as numeration, measurement, addition and subtraction. Because so many topics were involved and because it was necessary to know where a pupil should start in each of them, several days had to be devoted to diagnosis of pupil abilities.

"On the basis of this diagnosis a 'prescription' was developed for each pupil in each subject. This prescription listed the materials that the pupil was to start with, which might be enough for one day, several days, or a week, depending on the ability of the student and the difficulty of the unit. Evaluation and feedback, then, were built into the ongoing curricular activities. This is in contrast to many educational programs which depend heavily on periods of examination and the like that are separated from other curricular activities."[53]

IPI provides an example of a comprehensive curriculum pattern which utilizes behavior-shaping learning theory. Plans are underway to utilize this strategy in the development of a social studies curriculum.

Television and Behavior-Modification Techniques

Quite obviously, television could increase immeasurably the kinds of instructional sequences which are possible in IPI programs. One possibility is to assign certain elements and kinds of instruction to live or close-circuit broadcasting and

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[53] Bruce R. Joyce. The Structure of Teaching (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1967), pp. 81-84.

to correlate these with self-administering instructional sequences. For example, in a unit on Black Studies, programs on African life, on historic incidents and biographies, could be accompanied by instructional sequences which are administered individually and which utilize tighter and more specific behavioral objectives.

Television tape would permit an intriguing variety of instructional modules. Young children, studying families in many lands, could show themselves short tapes presenting dramatizations of families in action and be led to systematic analysis of the lives they were introduced to. Older students, studying the dynamics of cities, could use instructional sequences including taped interviews, samples of aspects of urban life, animations of urban factors, and many other representations of realia.

The combination of systems planning and behavior modification strategies linked to television should result in curricular programs of substantial power.

Expository Strategies

On the whole, expository teaching strategies are probably the most common, particularly since they have dominated the instructional materials field for quite a number of years. For example, nearly all textbooks and nearly all of the instructional television programs that we have seen represent straight exposition of subject matter. An example of this is in the Georgia Anthropology Project which we mentioned above, and which

provides for the student to be exposed by verbal materials and exercises to the major ideas and research methods of the anthropologist. The strategy involves simply identifying the material to be taught, organizing it, and then developing some way that it can be presented to the student. An example from the Georgia materials is worth examining.

The following material is taken from the Teachers' Guide for the Grade Four unit, Concept of Culture:

Procedure for Teaching the Unit

Although each teacher is at liberty to establish her own procedure for developing the unit, the following guide is suggested as an acceptable model.

1. Pre-test. The pre-test must be administered on the first day in order to obtain the initial knowledge level of the children so that achievement can be measured. The pre-tests will be mailed separately to the teachers in plenty of time for them to be administered to pupils the first day the unit begins.

2. Introduction: How We Study People. The lesson on "How We Study People" should take approximately three school days and should follow the pre-test of the first day. Teachers should study thoroughly the essay of "How We Study People," the objectives to be accomplished, vocabulary, and review questions contained in the teachers' and students' guides for the introduction, How We Study People, the teacher will wish to understand thoroughly the content of Cultural Variation. She will also wish to review the Activities section which describes the use of the comparative exercises which have been prepared for pupils. The teacher will note that this material is expendable. These comparative exercises, however, are not to be used until Cultural Variation is studied.

3. Concept of Culture, Cultural Variation, Enculturation, and Cultural Dynamics. These three topics should require about fifteen school days of teaching time to cover. A suggested procedure for the teacher to

> follow is summarily listed. First, begin by reading all of the materials through, both teacher and student, to get a feel of the scope and sequence of the material to be taught. Second, start with the lesson topic, "Concept of Culture." Through explanation and study of the pupils' materials, help the children to conceptualize what is meant when one speaks of a concept of culture. Consult the teachers' and the pupils' guide frequently to determine if you are developing the objectives outlined there and if you are using the vocabulary of this section properly in working with children. Third, select an appropriate activity or activities from those listed in the teachers' or the pupils' study guide which will effect the desired learnings which you wish to transmit to your pupils. Fourth, when you have pointed out the important content of the teacher essay about "Concept of Culture" and you have completed the pupils' materials, use the review questions in both the teachers' and pupil ' study guide to review the pupils and determine if additional teaching is necessary. Fifth, move on to the next topic: "Cultural Variation" and continue in a similar manner until you have taught the last topic "Culture Dynamics."

Good teaching procedure would likely dictate that teachers can be more effective in helping children understand other cultures if they will use the inductive or questioning approach. To illustrate, the teacher may elicit student responses to the following questions:

Teacher question: "What are some cultural universals?"

Anticipated pupil response: "Food, clothing, and shelter."

Teacher question: "What are some of the similarities and differences among these universals?

Anticipated pupil response: "All men must have food to survive."

Teacher question: "Do all men eat the same types of food?"

Anticipated pupil response: "No."

Teacher question: "Can you name some different types of foods eaten by men in different cultures?"

(The teacher would lead the children into a discussion of this point until it is adequately made.)

Teacher question: "Do all men have the same types of shelter?"

Anticipated pupil response: "No."

(Again, the teacher would lead the children into a discussion of this point until it is adequately made.)

Teacher question: "Do all men wear clothing for the same purpose?"

Anticipated pupil response: "No."

Teacher question: "Can you tell me why different cultures wear different types of clothes for different purposes?"

(Again, the teacher, using the question and answer process, would establish with the children the fact that one's culture determines the purpose of wearing clothes and that geographic factors may also contribute to the types of clothing worn.)

Other universals such as work, tools, communication, and transportation would be handled through the questioning method in a similar method. The teacher would want to help children suggest similarities and idfferences between cultures and peoples.

The teacher should list on a poster board with a felt pen some universals, similarities, and differences. These should be suggested by the pupils, and not simply "told" to them by the teacher. The universals, etc., can be used for review and to reinforce learning. They should remain in a prominent place in the room throughout the study of the unit so that pupils may study them periodically and revise them if necessary.[54]

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54 Anne Hunt, Jean Blackwood, Frances Emmons, op. cit. Teachers Guide pp. 4-6.

It can be seen here that the strategy is simple and straightforward and that materials are to be presented to students, they are to be gone over until the student has mastered them and then exercises are provided and discussion is provided to try to get the student to apply the materials that he has learned.

Implications of Television

From a pedagogical point of view the main problem when one selects an expository strategy is to develop approaches which are as powerful as possible. If film, for example, is the most vivid way to present material, then it should be employed. If a novel is the best way, then that should be employed. The potential uses of television to support the expository strategies presently being used in social studies curriculum programs are really enormous. The possible uses of television in curriculums like the Georgia Anthropology Project as an information source alone, let alone in a more major role, are very great indeed. In addition, as a teacher support, in terms of both knowledge about the discipline and demonstrations of teaching techniques, as well as presentations, television could be a major element.

Practicing the Discipline: A Sixth Teaching Strategy

The last teaching strategy that we will characterize here is one derived directly from an academic discipline and which simply involves "practicing" the discipline by inducing the learner to engage in the processes that the scholar does as

he attempts to solve problems. Although a tremendous amount of lip service is given to this particular strategy, it is very rarely actualized. Among the interesting attempts are those of the Educational Development Center, whose Man: A Course of Study curriculum has been developed for the fifth grade.[55] The Carnegie History Project under Edwin Fenton's direction has provided sources of original documents and its students practice the techniques of the historian in attempts to reconstruct the history of western society.[56] The Michigan Social Science Project under the direction of Lippitt and Fox teaches fourth to sixth grade children to apply the research methods of social psychology to an analysis of human groups.[57]

Joyce has elsewhere described the general strategy for teaching that uses the practice of the disciplines as its basis.

> 1. The learner should be led to examine his own life and the societal life of others. Social life provides the raw data of the social studies. This aspect of our teaching strategy derives from our first two major objectives of social studies: (1) humanistic education, to help the child comprehend his own life and find meanings in it, and (2) citizenship education, to help him understand his society and prepare him to make active contributions to it.
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> 2. The conduct of this examination should progressively reveal to him the organizing concepts that advanced social scientists use to analyze human life. This aspect of our teaching strategy derives from our third major objective of social studies: intellectual development, to help the child learn the major tools employed by advanced social scientists.
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> 3. The child should be led to apply these tools to his study of social life. This application is necessary so that what he learns will become part of his active

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[55] Educational Development Center, Man: A Course of Study (Cambridge, Mass.: Educational Development Center, 1968).

[56] Edwin Fenton. A High School Social Studies Curriculum for Able Students (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969).

[57] Ronald Lippitt, Robert Fox, Lucille Shaible. Social Science Laboratory Units (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1969).

equipment for facing life problems and improving his society. For example, as he arrives at a generalization about family life in his community, he should test the concept when he studies other communities. (Conversely, as he learns about family life in a foreign country, he should apply what he learns to the study of nearby families.)

4. The child should learn to make inferences and generalizations as he finds more data that necessitate revisions. In fact, information should be presented to the child in a sequence that requires him to revise and restate general concepts and causes him to learn that the present state of anyone's knowledge is tentative. This aspect of our teaching strategy is necessitated by two factors. The first is that knowledge of society is tentative and shifting. The second is that the shifting, changing nature of social life itself demands of us flexible modes of coping with and managing problems. Although our present knowledge of society may be insufficient for the child who will be alive in 2030, the habit of revising our organizing concepts and our ways of attacking problems is not so likely to go out of date.[58]

Implications for Television

In curriculums based on "social sciencing," the possible utility of television is increased by the fact that so few teachers are competent in the social sciences that teacher-led social-sciencing curriculums are extremely difficult to implement. Television could bring really first-rate social scientists to children to provide examples of the scholar at work, to lead teachers and children together, and to provide data sources not ordinarily found in the classroom. In all three major support roles, television and other media are badly needed if social sciencing strategies are to implemented.

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[58] Bruce R. Joyce. Strategies for Elementary Social Science Education. op. cit., pp. 36-37.

The Teaching Strategies in Social Science Curriculums

Generally speaking, three teaching strategies are the most common in terms of large curriculum patterns. Expository teaching leads all the others in frequency, particularly because it dominates the textbooks and the textbooks still dominate the instruction in most classrooms. However, teaching strategies built on inductive processes are quite common at least in theory and many materials have been built recently which utilize induction as a process. Third, the processes of the disciplines are increasingly coming to be the base of curriculum materials and consequently are beginning to affect practice in the classroom. The six basic teaching strategies which we have described above are by no means the only ones that <u>can</u> be employed in the social studies nor are they by any means the only ones that <u>are</u> employed. However, it is clear that there <u>can</u> be a strategy to curriculum and a strategy to teaching. Whether one chooses to use inductive methods or a Rogerian non-directive approach, or cooperative inquiry, or a programmed approach, it is possible to have a clear and well-rationalized teaching strategy and to employ it so that it increases the likelihood that the students will learn the kinds of things that are the goal of the curriculum. If one wishes to teach people how to think inductively, one can build a teaching strategy that has every logical chance of promoting inductive thinking. If one wishes to promote the practice of the disciplines, one can develop strategies based on the disciplinary strategies. If one wishes to engage the students

in cooperative inquiry, that is possible. What is not defensible today is to have curriculums that have no strategy at all.

Media and Curricular and Instructional Strategies

In a curriculum pattern human beings play the most important part. Students and teachers play various roles and interact in various kinds of ways. Also, media and other education technologies can be employed in various ways. Specific curriculum plans should use one or more strategies and plan for the needed support systems and roles for personnel. For example, the behavior-shaping strategy can be applied to the development of a bank of self-instructional courses that can be chosen by students at their option. Operating with respect to such a bank, the students can have a wide range of alternatives, but within each alternative they put themselves into the hands of the self-instructional unit. Such self-administering courses might be mediated over television, or they might be filmed, or they might be programmed books, or in kits of materials with directions on how to use them. The decisions made which prescribe the roles of the students and teachers and which specify the technologies to be used are the critical decisions which shape the curriculum.

Television has enormous potential for affecting the modes of instruction in the social studies. In fact, a major task of social studies educators is to change the present ways of teaching social studies to ones in which contemporary media are used more effectively. For example, the Oliver and Shaver strategy, the mission of which was described earlier, has used

small pamphlets which present the students' information about critical public issues. A series of televised segments could dramatize issues quite vividly and could bring many original documents to the attention of students. Similarly, televised sequences could help the students learn how to carry on the necessary dialogue and the total effect could be to change quite a bit the kind of curriculum mode that is possible within the Oliver-Shaver teaching strategy with its particular mission and its characteristic approach.

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CHAPTER FOUR

The Options for Television in the Social Studies

Three considerations are involved when the social studies curriculum developer plans his curricula so that the powerful media like television are capitalized on to the full. These are:

1. What social studies missions will be selected in the personal, social and academic domains?
2. What teaching strategies will be selected to accomplish those missions?
3. What support-system roles will television fulfill within the teaching strategy?

If the process is one of adapting television to a supporting role within an existing curricular pattern, when mission strategies have already been developed, then one begins by analyzing the mission and strategy of the curriculum and determining the possible teacher or student support functions which would increase the effectiveness of the curriculum were television to fill them or whether television should play a central controlling role. We will illustrate the process of adapting television to an existing curricular pattern a little later on when we present plans for employing television as a teacher support system in the "Ninth Grade Course on American Political Behavior."

If the process is one of creating a curricular pattern in which mission, strategy, and television roles will be planned from the beginning, then one selects missions and teaching strategies and designs support

roles that capitalize on the potential of television, classroom teachers, print media, etc.. We will illustrate this process shortly by creating an approach to social problems.

Because there are so many present approaches to the social studies, the selection of curriculum patterns to support can seem baffling at first. However, nearly all of them emphasize missions in one of the three domains and employ one or more of the six teaching strategies which we have described. The television producer and social studies curriculum-maker is faced with possibilities that can be diagrammed thus:

Missions

Personal Domain	Social Domain	Academic Domain

Teaching Strategies

Inductive	Democratic Process	Practicing the Discipline	Simulation
	Behavior Shaping	Expository	

Support Roles

To Teacher	to Student	Central Control

In the bibliography, a briefly-annotated list of curriculum approaches is given, annotated according to the three domains of mission and the six teaching strategies. These annotations provide a crude map of the approaches presently being taken to the social studies field and are particularly

directed to the television programmer who may not know the social studies field but who needs to work closely with the social studies curriculum developer.

Selecting Priorities

Because it has been very difficult to implement teaching strategies involving complex social and academic processes, most social studies curriculums employ either an expository or behavior-shaping strategy, and they are based on print materials, chiefly textbooks. In addition, most approaches emphasize concepts of facts within academic missions.

The Personal and Social Domains are badly in need of attention. Especially, the warmer social and personal issues need attention. Interpersonal relations, international problems, controversial public issues, and urban affairs are all in a state of relative neglect. Partly because of difficulties in implementation and partly because of the preferences of curriculum-makers, the "hot" social issues and "warm" personal domain have been avoided in favor of cooler academic content. Within the academic domain, the processes of social sciencing and the application of the social sciences to social issues and personal problems has taken a back\seat to emphasis on facts and descriptive concepts.

We believe that the power of television should be harnessed to draw the social studies toward the social, the personal, and the process side of the academic. In addition, inductive and cooperative teaching strategies, as well as those based on simulation and academic processes, have been seriously neglected.

Television can, therefore, bring much more balance to the social studies

if it is directed as we have suggested and if its support roles are designed to capitalize on its unique advantages as a medium. The options open to the social studies curriculum worker are increased if he brings the strong support of television to bear on his area.

Recommendations for Action To Improve the Social Studies

As they have read and reacted to this manuscript, a number of experts on educational television and experts on the teaching of social studies have remarked that although we may have clarified alternative avenues which might be taken to link television and the social studies through the selection of particular teaching strategies, particular social studies missions, and particular sets of support system roles for television, it is also our responsibility to make recommendations for directions that should be implemented. Our committee has been somewhat divided on this question. Some of us have felt that our task properly ends with the identification of alternatives and rational bases on which one might choose from among the alternatives. Others feel that it is our obligation to say what we believe should be done, or at least should be given highest priority. At bare minimum, it has been suggested, we should indicate what we ourselves intend to do to enlist television's strength to support the social studies and increase its vitality.

We have decided to make a compromise of sorts, and to provide in the following sections, an indication of our personal priorities for bringing about a more powerful marriage between television and the social studies area. Thus, we are identifying several areas in which members of

our committee are willing to devote their own time and energies. Consequently, these recommendations are not recommendations "to the world" but for the members of the committee themselves.

Three Recommendations

We recommend three types of activity for immediate developmental work and implementation by television producers and curriculum developers in the social studies. These areas seem to cry out for attention.

1. The creation of a national and regional set of series dealing with missions in the social domain where urgent societal problems are involved.

2. The linking of television in teacher-support roles to contemporary "national" curriculum projects in social studies to increase implementation at the local level.

3. The development of a set of short, self-administering courses in the social sciences for grades four through twelve, inclusive.

Let us look at each of these in turn, rationalize their selection and provide some specificity about their shape, and the problems of implementing them.

Recommendation #1

Regional and National Programs Directed At Problems of Social Urgency

It has been exceedingly difficult for the usual instructional methods and curriculum development systems in the social studies to respond to a need for instruction in areas where there is social controversy or where a serious criticism of the society may be involved.

As it presently stands, most instruction depends almost entirely on the initiative of the teacher. Consequently, there is a very low level of implementation of any social studies mission and means for which teachers have not been previously prepared. Consider, for example, the teaching of international relations through simulation. To bring this about requires an enormous effort because few teachers are knowledgeable about international relations, and relatively few of those have been trained to use simulation as an instructional device. To compound this situation, the international arena is one of which many members of the American public are very sensitive, adding to the strain on the teacher when he attempts to deal in that area. In other words, it involves core American values about which the public is very nervous--instruction in international relations is likely to give offense to some segment of the population.

Many other important areas suffer with the same difficulties as international relations. Many teachers avoid controversial areas because public reaction can cause them great difficulty. Although there are many curriculum developers who would like to develop major social studies

attention to urban studies, the study of alienation in American mass society, international relations, black studies, and Asian studies, the public school is slow to implement new curriculum patterns in these areas because of problems in teacher preparation, lack of instructional materials, or high public sensitivity to the area. (The area where the greatest progress is most likely in the near future is Asian studies, at the secondary level, because while it has required the training of teachers in content, it is usually taught with traditional teaching strategies and the content is similar to that which the teachers are accustomed to handling. Also, as Asian studies are treated, controversial questions are not involved. However, the rest of the examples given are ones in which we can not expect for some time to see solid instruction, however great the need.)

It is in these areas that it is most urgent that television be brought into the social studies picture, and these are the ones we have been concerned with in indirect ways throughout this entire document. The problems of alienation in a mass society are critical and severe. Problems of urban development also are in urgent need of serious attention in social studies curriculums. International relations is an area in which the American public continues to remain virtually ignorant and in which the social studies continues to be extremely weak, especially with respect to contemporary world affairs. Race relations, including the study of black and white culture, and the interrelationships between the two is the other area of patently critical need.

In each of these areas, television can help to avoid the traditional difficulties in curriculum change. This is particularly true if the curriculum plans are made so that television plays the pivotal role in comprehensive curricular systems of the kind described in the first chapter. In the next few pages we present an exemplar of a comprehensive curricular system dealing with alienation. In this exemplar television is used as the mainspring of the curriculum, although it is almost never used for direct narrative instruction of a traditional kind. The teaching strategies that were selected depend, on the contrary, on a high level of student participation. By using television and specially prepared print materials, and by developing regional and even national programs that are comprehensive in nature and are intended to open up for study the problems of alienation, urban studies, international relations, and race relations in the United States, a social studies change can be developed which will perform an invaluable enriching service to the public school.

We recommend that this be done.

An Exemplar of Recommendation #1: A comprehensive approach to the problem of alienation with television in the managerial support role.

To illustrate our recommendation we have developed the specifications for a curricular approach to a serious social problem. In our exemplar television serves the managerial support role--giving thrust to the curriculum and carrying many phases of instruction for which few teachers are presently prepared.

The curriculum is designed to capitalize on the unique qualities of live television for enabling students all over the nation to grapple with problems that are important to them all. To implement it would necessitate support by large school districts, both state and local, all over the country. The plan is presented in terms of the objectives of the program, which we will call its "mission", and its methods, or in our jargon, the "means" for achieving the mission. The plan is designed to capitalize on television's capacity to communicate dramatic information simultaneously to a nation-wide student body and on television's capacity to help persons widely separated by space to communicate directly and relatively fully with one another. The plan requires an open circuit or extensive closed circuit network over a metropolitan area, a region, or the nation. It requires several studios for broadcasting and for creating television tapes. It also depends on extensive briefing of teachers and students and on continuous feedback to studio personnel so that the activities can be adjusted to the unfolding progress of the students. Although this curriculum focuses on the social problem of alienation, it is intended as an illustration of the kinds of approaches that can be taken to many social problems when television is used in a managerial role.

The Mission: A War Against Alienation

The mission of this "course" is to bring together the young people of America in a war against the alienation that divides men in a mass society. The curriculum plan is designed for implementation all over the nation. It provides for much student determination of activities

despite the national scope. Let us begin to describe it by defining what we mean by alienation.

Since the term alienation has been rather loosely used in the popular press, although generally it refers to the sense of aloneness and disaffiliation among men in mass technological society, we should take some pains with its definitions.

The classic sociologists Emile Durkheim[59] and Max Weber[60] pointed out that the large organizations for getting things done in a mass technological society result in the routinization of things in order to promote efficiency. In order to coordinate the activities of large numbers of people, an organization establishes standard procedures. It becomes, in other words, impersonal. A letter mailed at the post office is treated like any other letter and, unless it is in an envelope that conforms to regulations, it will not be treated at all. The consequence is great efficiency but also depersonalization. While one does not mind depersonalizing objects, people are something else again. However, the bigger and more complicated any human organization becomes, the more individuals within the organization are required to behave in standard ways and the more individuals relating to the organization feel that they are required to behave in standard ways. We can think of this in terms of behavior in restaurants. In a small village where there is only one restaurant, the owner and the patrons can get to know each other well and they each may adapt to the other. If the patrons complain about the food or request special dishes, the proprietor is likely to try to satisfy them. Conversely, if the proprietor likes to share tables with his patrons, they are likely

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[59] Emile Durkheim. Suicide: A Study in Sociology, translated by John A. Spaulding and George Simpson (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1951).

[60] Max Weber. The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, translated by A.M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons (New York: The Free Press, 1968).

to accomodate him. In a large cafeteria or a syndicated series of restaurants in a large city like New York, however, the restaurant establishes routine procedures and the patrons are expected to observe these. Such standardization enables enormous quantities of people to be fed every day but at the same time the patron is wedged into a pattern. Mass services, in other words, tend to become bureaucratized. (Interestingly enough, the mass patterns easily spread to the country. Hence, village restaurants can take on the bureaucratic patterns!)

In the city and, thus, even in rural areas in a mass society, individuals as well as organizations establish routines for doing things. In the proverbial village one meets only a few people every day and he can respond to them rather fully. In the mass society, however, a citizen is likely to encounter dozens of people in any given day and if he were to respond fully and personally to each one, it would exhaust him. So, just like the restaurant, he begins to treat people impersonally. He smiles perfunctorily. He looks at people without really seeing them and he puts a mask over his face, so that his thoughts cannot be read easily and he can achieve some privacy behind his closed exterior. In other words he becomes anonymous.

The routinization of large organization (the bureaucratization of behavior) combines with the anonymous stance of the mass dweller, and the effect is compounded by the effect of technologies that give one the possibility for vast goods and services but only by making the goods and services impersonal. When a craftsman makes a chair for you, it becomes a personal possession that you imbue with his personality and your own. When you buy a television set from Sears, it is a much more complicated

product requiring a much higher level of mechanized technology than did the carving of the chair's spindles, but it is bought impersonally to be used for a few years and then discarded and replaced by another--it is one more routine and automatic thing in one's existence. In addition, participation in the society becomes dependent on technical competency and function. One tends to have to submit himself to long periods of training and to need to get and maintain a position in the technical-economic world in order to survive. Hence one treats oneself as an instrumentality--to use oneself impersonally within an impersonal system.

Under such conditions, men tend to lose their sense of affiliation to their fellow men. They develop feelings of normlessness and facelessness--what Durkheim called anomie. In the midst of millions, the individual man can feel alone. He looks around and finds that he has shut himself off from all but a very few people. The effect of this is what we call a general cultural alienation. It is characterized by the emergence of vague feelings of discontent and loneliness, and as apparently spontaneous hostility or a free floating hostility that can become attached to strangers or organizations (who react with surprise wondering "what they have done" to arouse ire.)

Kenneth Keniston has become a spokesman for the factors which compound youth's dilemma against this general background of cultural alienation.[61] He has pointed out that American society makes extraordinary demands on its members. In the first place they are asked to adapt to chronic social change. Ideas come in and out of fashion at a dizzying

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[61] Kenneth Keniston. The Uncommitted: Alienated Youth in American Society (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1965).

rate. The insatiable and pervasive media transmit these as fast as they are discovered. Under such conditions, a sense of the past which is so important to the achievement of an identity is virtually impossible. Second, Americans are asked to achieve a sense of personal wholeness and social integration in a complex and fragmented society. On the personal level, a man's specific work is but a fraction performed by the organization. In addition, his work is unrelated to other aspects of his life. In his public life, he is expected to be rational and cognitive while at home, in his private life, he is expected to be loving, passionate and idealistic. On a social level, America is like a collection of minority groups rather than a main stream with variations. Caste and class combine with ethnic stratification to separate Americans from each other. In a societal matrix, there is a great sense of fragmentation and separation both from oneself and from others, conditions which prevent a sense of personal wholeness and identity. Third, there is an extraordinary discontinuity between childhood and adulthood. The adolescent is required to negotiate his way toward adulthood in a situation of extreme competitiveness (which itself increases alienation) and great uncertainty. The adolescent is required to make decisions which will affect his entire life during a period in which he is very young and while faced with an almost impossibly complex economic and social matrix through which he must find his way. To achieve participation in the culture he has to accomplish many years of an education that often seems irrelevant to his growing up. (In fact, it has been tailored to his later education and work rather than to his needs as a growing individual.)

Last, the adolescent has to make this negotiation in an intellectual climate which makes the development of positive values very difficult. As Friedenberg has pointed out, in an open technological society, the pressures to conform are fantastic, because by conforming and by becoming impersonally and technologically capable, great economic reward is possible. Also, there exists in American society sets of spoken values which conflict with behaviors that are actually carried on. For many years a prime example of this has been the belief that all citizens are equal and are treated equally by official agencies. Recently, of course, there has become general verbal recognition that this is not so. To the young person, such a conflict between spoken values and behavior by adults appears to be extremely cynical and it disrupts the dialogue which might otherwise take place between the young and the old, making it difficult for the young to receive the help they might otherwise receive from older persons.

All of this is quite well known today and the lists of concerned philosophers, sociologists and psychologists, as well as public figures who describe and mourn the situation is very long. Keniston, Friedenberg, Fromm, and many others have spoken out strongly and sharply about this problem.

As stated above, the mission of the comprehensive curriculum which we purpose will be to reduce the sense of alienation and to decrease the fact of alienation by enabling youngpeople to make life more personal and more filled with dialogue in which they and their elders examine this aspect of society and attempt to do something about it.

The General Behavioral Objectives for the Curriculum

It is not possible in a document of reasonable length to provide detailed behavioral objectives which are necessary to develop a complete curricular approach. However, it is necessary to provide enough behavioral objectives to give the reader a clear idea of the specifics within the general mission. The first objectives that we will mention are positive in nature and are behaviors to be acquired. The second set of behaviors we will mention are negative in the sense that they are behaviors to be reduced. (This is because one of the goals of the effort is to reduce alienation.)

1. Knowledge of and ability to apply Keniston's conceptual framework for analyzing alienation between contemporary society. The achievement of this objective would be demonstrated by the student's ability to use Keniston's concepts to describe behavior in the contemporary society, including exemplars from his own behavior and those of his associates, and the ability to point out or demonstrate exemplars of alienated and non-alienated behavior.

2. Knowledge of and ability to apply conceptual systems for analyzing bureaucratic behavior in contemporary society. The achievement of this objective could be demonstrated as in the case immediately above.

3. The willingness to engage in a dialogue with peers and elders over the problem of alienation and affiliation in the society.

4. The willingness and ability to study alienated and non-alienated behavior in the individual's local situation. Implied is the ability to carry on surveys of behavior and to interpret the results of those surveys.

5. The ability to carry on interpersonal relations in such a way that impersonal and personal contact is established. This implies the ability of the student to control his own behavior so that he achieves the ability to personalize his behavior as well as to depersonalize it.

6. The formulation of a plan for reducing alienation in a situation in which the student has involvement. This includes working together with others in the school situation to create a less alienated and more authentic and affiliated mode of behavior within that institution.

7. The ability and willingness to formulate and defend a play for reducing alienation in this nation. An increase in active political and social involvement to reduce alienation on a national scale.

This again implies the ability to work together with others, for very few individuals could formulate such a plan alone, and the willingness to debate the plan with those who might help one to put it into effect.

Negative Objectives

The following objectives describe the manifestations of a reduction in alienation.

8. A decrease in withdrawal from social contact or avoidance of dialogue with peers and elders. This implies that, given the opportunity, students would be more likely to engage in attempts to interact with others, particularly in warm and authentic ways.

9. A decrease in hostile acts including criminal behavior, a willingness to face problems openly and directly and to try to work out mutual solutions.

10. A reduction in feelings of aloneness and fear of contact with others.

11. A reduction in feelings of futility with respect to the "system" and with respect to making contact with other individuals. This objective derives from the fact that alienated individuals frequently feel that it is impossible to cope with the existing order of things either with respect to large organizations and routines or with respect to making personal contact with other individuals who can interact openly.

These are really very general objectives but they should indicate the specific flavor of the mission.

The Teaching Strategy

Our strategy is designed to capitalize on the unique advantages of television to enable people all over the country to engage in a simultaneous study of matters of concern to all and to provide the spontaneous unedited reactions so critical to this particular mission. The curriculum should be introduced to the largest number of students including secondary school and junior high school students from all over the nation. (Although there would be considerable benefits from a curriculum directed only to the entirety of a metropolitan area or a state.) The strategy hinges on the possibility of using open-circuit television plus television tapes to induce the students from all over the area concerned (we will speak of the nation for illustrative purposes) to engage simultaneously in the study of alienation. This nation-wide student body would develop ways of attacking and defeating alienation and replacing bureaucratic contact with authentic personal contact and meaningful interpersonal relationships. The key idea is the radical one of trying to induce a national cooperative inquiry into the problem area--one which would result in the formation of cooperative groups all over the nation, related to each other by means of television, but working in the same problem area. The reason for the selection of the cooperative inquiry strategy is because it is designed to produce dialogue and community--conditions opposite to alienation and conducive to affiliation. Let's see how this might work--cooperative study on a nation-wide scale.

Phase One

The strategy begins with the presentation of a series of televised encounters with examples of the problem. These confrontations can be in the form of dramatizations of puzzling incidents which are related to alienation. An example would be the Kitty Genovese incident in which apartment dwellers in New York heard and at times watched a young woman being stabbed to death in the courtyard of the apartment house and declined to get involved even to the extent of calling the police. But alienation comes in many forms less dramatic, and a good many of the confrontations should deal with the less dramatic but equally important incidents of human behavior which exemplify the alienated condition. Alienation is so widespread in the contemporary human scene that the task of generating the dramatizations should be discouragingly easy. Driver behavior, for example, commuter behavior in subways or trains, behavior in large organizations, competitive situations, all abound.

Our suggestion is that the curriculum sequence begin with the presentation of a number of dramatizations in which various types of alienated behavior are illustrated. These should include routine behavior toward others, the failure to respond or get involved in social situations in which individuals do not respond to one another with warmth and authenticity, and others.

Phase Two

In the second stage, following the sequence of dramatizations, students should begin to make clear their reactions to the situations. For this

purpose classes of youngsters in high schools and junior high schools throughout the country could discuss the incidents. Groups of them could be brought together to make television tapes or to have discussions which would be broadcast live so that they would share their various reactions with students in their school. A dramatization should stimulate a wide variety of reactions and the variety of reactions itself should be puzzling to the student. (Some students will not see the alienating effects of competition, cliques, etc., whereas others will feel it keenly.) For example, a film like Last Summer, which depicts adolescents alienated from older persons and from each other, provokes a very wide range of reactions that should stimulate dialogue about the reasons for the different reactions as well as into the problem itself.

Ideally, classrooms all over the country would discuss their reactions to the dramatizations. Then representatives from various regions of the country would appear on television to describe their reactions. This would set the stage for the next phase of the work--planning inquiry into the problem area.

Phase Three

At this point, using a nationwide hookup, social scientists could meet with the students in the studio and help them to formulate inquiry into their reactions to the situations that they had observed. Some of the scholars could introduce them to frameworks for analyzing the various phenomena of alienation. Television tapes could be prepared also and distributed to local classrooms to provide suggestions for lines of study and of the phenomena.

This phase could be shaped so as to induce groups of local students in classrooms all over the country to study not only the confrontation dramatizations and the questions they raise, but also to expand their range of study into their community life and to begin to study the same phenomena in daily life that they are studying by means of their analysis of the confrontation dramatization.

As the study proceeded, classrooms could communicate problems and progress by television. Again the nationwide hook-up could be used to provide consultation with social scientists over the study problems as they developed. For example, if a group of students in New York, Los Angeles, and New Orleans were studying bureaucratic behavior in large organizations, the social scientist might appear on the television hookup and present to them ways to go about their study. Simultaneously, television tapes could be made and distributed to the local schools providing further and perhaps more detailed advice.

As investigation progressed, students could begin to share their findings with students in other parts of the United States. Other students could comment on the findings and the social scientists could have their commentary as well. The results of the students' study could be compared with the results of scholarly study. Keniston, for example, could compare the findings of his analysis with those that were turned up by students in various parts of the United States.

As soon as the studies were well-developed and had been discussed and analyzed thoroughly, it would be time for the next phase.

Phase Four

In phase four the television medium would be used to challenge the students to two kinds of efforts. One would be to formulate plans to reduce alienation in some aspects of their lives. A second would be to formulate plans which could be applied on a nationwide scale to reduce alienation.

Over the nationwide network students and experts could present their plans as they were formulated, criticize the plans, and discuss their implementation. Groups in various parts of the United States which were formulating similar plans could be addressed over the nationwide network or through specially prepared television tapes to provide consultation from experts. (During all the phases up to this point, quite a number of programs would continue to introduce theoretical and student-generated ways of looking at the alienation problem so that in the course of the phases a rather complete coverage of the area would be ensured.) Considerable time would be taken with this phase so that alternative approaches to the reduction of alienation could be well aired and analyzed.

Phase Five

In this phase local groups would begin to put into effect their plans for alleviating some aspect of alienation within the orbit of their competence. As the plans were put into action, they would be reported over the nationwide network and particular local groups would prepare television tapes which would be sent to other local groups reporting their progress and problems. As the progress and problems were reported, experts would address the local groups over the nationwide network and also using

the medium of video tape.

Simultaneous with the local activity, a nationwide organization of children would be started using the nationwide network and representatives of the local groups throughout the country would be put together to select some aspect of alienation for a nationwide frontal attack.

Phase Six

In this phase the local efforts would continue and the nationwide effort would be inaugerated. The nationwide network would be used to coordinate the efforts, to keep the students from various aspects of the country in contact with one another, and to develop and refine further plans. Using the nationwide network, aspects of the plan could be put into effect simultaneously all over the country. For example, let us suppose that one aspect of the plan was to increase warmth in hitherto impersonal relations such as the way that one relates to restaurants, waiters, and waitresses. Over the nationwide network, ways of doing this could be discussed and the students could set a target date for implementing the new form of behavior. Then, simultaneously all over the United States people (restaurant employees, for example) would find that young people were acting differently toward them. The students would know the plan was being implemented throughout the United States, they would have the reinforcement of the nationwide community, and the obligation of holding up their end of the game.

Phase Seven

Phase seven would consist of reports from local activities and the preparation for further national action. In addition, students would be taught how to engage in evaluation of their efforts, that is, how to determine whether or not they would be becoming less alienated in interpersonal relations and in inducing less alienation in other people.

Challenge to Social Studies Educators

The combination of nationwide television with the cooperative inquiry strategy would result in an educational approach never before seen, that is, a cooperative inquiry which would have local and national aspects and which would involve all the young people of the country in the simultaneous study of problems that affect them very deeply. If this approach were successful, the students, utilizing the nationwide network, might select other areas for examination and study. Possibly problems of urbanization or of international understanding and relations, or of developing careers, or of learning to relate with others, or problems of sex and marriage, would be selected. The television mediated cooperative inquiry mode, enabling a dialogue among representatives of young people from all or part of the nation and permitting them to interact with experts and their elders, might generate a national dialogue on problems of personal and social significance, in which the strength and optimism of the young could be combined with the technological know-how of their elders to produce what really could be a significant effect on the American society.

We urge social studies curriculum developers to think of the unique possibility that television has for involving young people all over the country in problems needing study and social action at the present time. There is no question that television could help the existing social studies curriculum patterns immensely, and we hope that in this pamphlet we can describe a good many ways in which that might be done. However, the really important problems of the society should provide a more exciting focus for a really unique combination of television and the optimism of youth.

Television as Manager

Television would make possible the management of curriculums like this by enabling instructions to be communicated to many people widely separated by space, by permitting those widely-separated students and teachers to communicate with each other and by providing an avenue for flexible support to teachers and students when necessary. A curriculum plan such as this one could not be implemented without support systems of this magnitude.

Stages of Implementation

The "Alienation Plan" or similar curricula could be implemented in a single large metropolitan area, a state or country, a region, or as we have described it here, on a national level.

Such an approach requires an open-circuit broadcast system, plus facilities for making, exchanging, and broadcasting video tapes.

It should be initiated by social studies curriculum planners, who,

depending on the area and its size, will have to develop an organization linking all of the schools to be involved in the activities. A program-planning group of experts in the problem area, students and teachers would be needed to coordinate communication and perhaps plans as the study proceeded:

The production of presentations would be simple, except for the development of the initial confronting incidents, so costs of program-preparation would be relatively low. However, much open-circuit time would be needed, there would be transportation costs of some magnitude, and television tape and recorders would be needed. If done in a single metropolitan area or state the coordination problems would be simplest and this type of approach may not decrease in per student costs as the area increases--it may even be least expensive when done by a single region using only its local ETV station. In fact, if a district or state operates its own open-circuit or closed-circuit facility, the costs of production, over and above regular fixed costs for studio personnel and technicians, would not be large and would consist chiefly of fees for experts in the problem-area and the cost of television tape.

The action approach to social problems is but one way that the social studies curriculum planner can use television to improve the social studies curricular program. We turn now to our second recommendation, this time finding television in a support role for the teacher as new curricula are implemented.

Recommendation #2

Implementing Innovative Curriculum Patterns

As we have described earlier, over the last few years a number of strong curriculum-development projects have been mounted in the social studies. A large proportion of these have been centered around the modes of the social sciences or ways of promoting analytic thinking about social problems, and they have been greeted with considerable interest by school districts around the United States. However, these projects require teacher knowledge of the social sciences and many of them utilize complex teaching strategies and innovative teaching materials. Hence, their spread has not been anywhere near what has been hoped for.

Television, especially in the teacher support role, could greatly accelerate and vitalize the implementation of these curricular approaches. We can identify four types of support which are useful in implementing a curricular plan: teacher training, episode input, sharing of analyses, and interpretation of controversial issues.

Applied to a program such as the Georgia Anthropology Curriculum Project, which was described briefly in Chapters Two and Three, one can imagine:

Teacher training in anthropological concepts and in the cultures to be studied.

Episode input to students in the form of data about the various cultures (especially filmed material and slide talks by experts). Analyses of data could be shared by experts and by groups of children. In a particular region in which many schools were using the curriculum plan, children might be brought together in the studio with anthropologists who might help them interpret the data they are working with and lead them to alternative interpretations. Controversial issues could also be handled in the studio to some extent, with panels representing various views exploring topics (such as race and culture) and ensuring that the alternatives are dealt with in relation to each other.

Some curriculum plans need one kind of support more than others. Man, A Course of Study requires superb but expensive films which might economically be shown over television, providing episode input on to many students. Oliver and Shaver's approach to public issues utilizes a very complex teaching strategy which could employ televised teacher training, episode input, and in which television might assist with the handling of controversial issues. The Michigan Social Science Project would be assisted by teacher training and help with analysis.

We recommend that the innovative social studies curriculum projects be teamed with the blends of support systems most likely to increase their implementability.

To illustrate how television could serve the social studies, let us look more closely at a teacher support system designed to further the

implementation of a curriculum plan.

Teacher Support Within a Course

Under the direction of Howard Mehlinger, the High School Curriculum Center in Government, located at Indiana University, has been developing and testing curriculum materials to support alternative approaches to existing high school civics and government courses.

In an effort to illustrate how television could serve as a teacher support within an existing course framework, we examined the course in American Political Behavior, one of the courses developed by the Indiana group, and identified ways that television might fulfill the support roles and, by being added to the curriculum plan, enhance the implementation and effectiveness of the program.

The objectives of the program are to teach students to become better observers, analyzers, and evaluatory of political behavior, including their own. In the process they will also learn a number of useful social science concepts and skills. The course is data-based, drawing upon much statistical data, cast studies, etc., relating to American political behavior. The materials are organized in a sequential manner in order that concepts and skills learned in early units serve as building blocks for later units.

The two-semester course consists of five major units. Unit I--"Introduction to the Study of Political Behavior"--enables students to learn what is meant by a behavioral approach to the study of politics. Students begin to distinguish between social scientific and non-scientific

approaches to the study of politics. In the second unit students investigate the social bases of politics in the United States. They begin to use such concepts as political socialization and political culture, applying these terms to the interpretation of political phenomena. Unit Three--"Elections and Voting Behavior"--is a social scientific analysis of a single political act performed by American citizens. Students study such questions as: Who votes and who does not vote? Why do certain people vote while others do not participate? What are the influences operating on voter choices? Unit Four, entitled, "Official Political Specialists," is concerned with four political roles: President, Congressman, Supreme Court Justice, and Federal Bureaucrat. Students examine the role, the recruitment process, and the decision-making process for each of these four types. Unit Five--"Unofficial Political Specialists"--is concerned with those individuals who are fully occupied with political affairs but who do not hold positions in the government. Examples of "unofficial political specialists" are newspaper editors and television news commentators, political party leaders, interest group representatives, and certain experts.

The materials are structured around a four-fold lesson sequence, consisting of "confrontation" lessons, "rule-example" lessons, "application" lessons and "value analysis" lessons. Through this curriculum sequence students are led to inquire into both empirical and normative questions.

Two large volumes contain the materials for student use. A comprehensive teacher'a manual, audio-visual supports, and examinations are

provided for the teachers.

Television could support the teacher in this curriculum in several ways. First, it could provide him with substantive and clinical training. Its high-information capacity could help him build his background and demonstration lessons could show him alternative ways of handling classes.

Second, many of the episodes, case studies, and data could be presented over television, in conjunction with the print medium. The high-information and dramatic qualities of television, would be advantageous, and print and television could be coordinated in the roles each best fulfills. The high-information quality of television could bring much additional information to the situation and the dramatic possibilities could heighten interest and authenticity, increase impact, and present processes in detail difficult to describe in writing. The use of television would also make the episodes, cases and data much more available to the less able readers. Presently, reading is an important factor in giving students access to data.

The following is a brief case study which could be greatly augmented and dramatized by television.

Campaign Strategies of the Rival Candidates

Barry Goldwater and his Republican supporters waged a hard-hitting campaign. They realized that they faced a difficult, "up-hill" campaign battle. Yet, the persistent optimism and a firm faith in the "rightness" of their cause motivated the Goldwater forces to wage a spirited fight.

Goldwater based his campaign strategy upon three assumptions: First, he argued that the American people were ready to embrace "conservative political ideas". Goldwater believed that they wanted a clear-cut alternative to the big-government, welfare-program policies of the Democrats.

According to Goldwater, Republican candidates had failed in the past, because they tried too hard to be like the Democrats. Goldwater claimed that his policies would attract Republican support as never before. He argued that too many Republican voters were staying away from the polls on election day, because neither the Republican nor the Democrat Presidential candidates were attractive choices. Thus, Goldwater's campaign slogan became "a choice, not an echo," which reflected his belief that his candidacy would attract large numbers of stay-at-home Republicans to his banner. Also, Goldwater sincerely believed that the tide of public opinion was rising in favor of his "conservative"political policies and values.

The second major assumption around which Goldwater built his campaign strategy was that he could win the Presidency without appealing to the large urban areas of the North and Northeast. Rather, he hoped to combine traditional Republican strength in the West and the Middle-West, rural and small town centers, with newly won support in the South. Goldwater believed that this combination of states would bring enough electoral votes to gain the Presidency. His attempts to attract support from the once solidly Democratic South was a new departure for a Republican party Presidential candidate.

Goldwater's third major assumption was that his "conservative" stand on several current issues would attract the support of the American people. He took a "hard line" against Communist nations, vowing to use military force without hesitation to check Communist expansion around the world. He stated that field commanders might have the option of using tactical nuclear weapons in the Vietnam conflict. He gave the impression that he wanted to escalate the nation's military involvement in Vietnam.

Concerning domestic issues, Goldwater suggested that major government welfare programs should be limited. He said that disadvantaged people should not look to the government for assistance. Rather, they should rely on individual initiative; they should "pull themselves up by their own bootstraps." During the New Hampshire primary, he suggested that the social security program be made voluntary. Later, he attacked proposals for medical assistance to the aged. A major theme of the Goldwater campaign was denunciation of "big government" as an enemy of individual iniative and freedom.

Concerning race relations and civil rights, Goldwater favored local control and individual efforts to achieve harmony in race relations. He opposed the Civil Rights Law of 1964, because it gave the Federal government power to force mixing of the races in places of business. He claimed that this was a denial of property rights and individual freedom. This stand attracted wide support in the Southern states.

Lyndon Johnson's campaign strategy contrasted greatly with Goldwater's strategy. Johnson proposed a "war on poverty" and the building of a "Great Society." The power and resources of the Federal Government would

be used to extend educational and economic opportunities. Johnson's proposals were directly in line with the "New Deal" policies of the Democratic President Franklin D. Roosevelt and the "New Frontier" program of President John F. Kennedy.

Johnson charged that Goldwater was hostile to the interests of organized labor and manual workers. He claimed that a Goldwater victory would threaten the economic security of manual workers. Johnson also pictured Goldwater as "trigger happy" and warlike, because of his hardline approach to relations with Communists nations.

Popular Reactions to the Candidates, Issues and Campaigns:

From the moment of his nomination, Goldwater faced the problem of reuniting his badly divided party. Three out of four Henry Cabot Lodge supporters refused to support the Goldwater candidacy. Two out of three Nelson Rockefeller supporters refused to back Goldwater. Goldwater was not able to bring back the embittered portions of his party. One of every five traditional Republican voters deserted him on election day. In addition, a majority of independent voters supported Johnson. Most of those who voted for Goldwater were white Protestant upper-income individuals. By contrast, Johnson attracted a broad cross-section of groups in the American electorate. He received a majority of votes in every social category except the "Republican" category.

Goldwater's election strategy succeeded only in the South, where he won five deep South states. For the first time, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina went Republican in a Presidential election. Why was Goldwater's campaign successful in the "deep South"? Why was it such a massive failure in the rest of the country? Use the set of questions on pages 319 to 320 to guide your analysis of the Presidential election campaign of 1965.

This material could be dramatized and illustrated with film documents from the campaign. Pictorial and animated summaries of the effects of the strategies with various voter groups could be added.

Sets of data also lend themselves to television support. For example, the exploration of legal barriers to voting (including age) contains lively and controversial material. The following table is included in the unit on legal barriers and could be elaborated and extended greatly by television as well as print.

TABLE 9

Estimate of Americans of Voting Age
Unable to Vote in the 1960 Presidential Election*

1.	Mobile adults unable to meet state, county, or precinct residence requirements.	8,000,000
2.	Kept from voting by illness.	5,000,000
3.	Negroes kept from voting in Southern states by unfair literacy tests and various social and economic pressures.	4,000,000
4.	Aliens of voting age.	3,000,000
5.	Kept from voting due to travel.	2,600,000
6.	Illiterate adults in (25) states with a literacy test requirement for voting.	800,000
7.	U.S. citizens living in foreign countries.	500,000
8.	Prison inmates	215,000

Third, television could provide the opportunity for students in various classes to exchange their analyses of the episodes, cases, and data through panels, symposia, question sessions (one group working over television with others calling in via telephone). In addition, experts could join the panels to share their analyses of the material. Advanced scholars in topics under consideration (as the factors which change voter opinion) would be involved to discuss their specialty.

Fourth, because the curriculum deals with many controversial areas of American life, many teachers feel the need for support from prestigious, knowledgeable teachers who can assume some of the emotional and intellectual

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* Adapted from Byrne, Brendan. Let's Modernize Our Horse-and-Buggy Election Laws. Washington, Conneticut: The Center for Information on America, 1961, p.3.

burden of broaching important and controversial issues. Special broadcasts might be arranged to see that all sides of controversial issues are aired and explored fully.

These four types of teacher support could be provided in a straightforward way without making any major structural revisions in the course. The following diagram shows television in relationship to the phase of the teaching strategy.

Teaching Strategy

Phase One	Phase Two	Phase Three
Presentation of Episodes, Cases Data	Analysis of Material	Interpretation in Terms of Political Science Concepts and Political Issues

TYPE OF SUPPORT

1. Teacher Training

   a. Substantive knowledge: Television can provide the background information or major concepts of political behavior and social inquiry techniques necessary for the analyses of episodes and interpretation in terms of political science concepts and issues (Phases Two and Three).

   b. Clinical Experience: Television can provide demonstrations of various ways of presenting and analyzing the data, cases, etc. as well as alternative ways of organizing students for instruction (Phases One and Two).

2. Episode Input

With its high dramatic quality, television can increase the effectiveness of the initial presentation (Phase One). It can increase the informational possibilities for the presentation (Phase One) by providing access to otherwise unavailable resources i.e. original documents, etc., also. Finally, television can circumvent the reading problems attendant with printed informational sources. (Phase One)

3. Sharing of Analysis

In enabling participants of varying backgrounds and locations to communicate with each other over a particular episode, television provides differing perspectives that increase the scope of analysis (Phase Two). The addition of a panel of experts can enhance the quality of interpretation (Phase Three).

4. Interpretation of Controversial Issues

Television can ensure the presentation of here-to-fore avoided controversial issues, improve their quality by providing full exploration (Phase One); ensure full analysis of all sides (Phase Two) and sound analytical interpretations (Phase Three).

All four types of support could utilize either live broadcast or tape. To be sure that media serve and do not dominate the teacher, he needs to retain the option of not using the material presented, even when live broadcast is employed. However, carefully shaped supports should anticipate high usage.

The curriculum design of the American Political Behavior course is such that, with some modification, it could be organized with television in a major instructional and managerial role. To use television effectively in such a role, it would be necessary to develop a solid system to enable student analyses to be fed to the studio so that programs can capitalize on, and be directed toward student response. However, the teaching strategy, pivoting as it does on live issues and problems (as

contrasted with a narrative approach) might almost have been made for television.

Practical Considerations

Developing teacher support systems to further the implementation of curriculum projects in the social studies involves considerable production costs for teacher-training, episode input, and interpretation of controversial issues.

Either a coalition of districts or a substantial external subsidy would be necessary to meet those costs. In the long run, a coalition of districts seems more desirable, for the need to use television and other media to increase program implementation is a recurrent one and should be part of the operating budget of the local district rather than something done only when grants can be procured. However, coalitions can reduce costs through sharing. At the national level, foundation or federal funding of the development of support systems for specific curriculum projects seems very desirable--and extremely economical, for a relatively modest investment in the development of support systems can greatly increase the likelihood that the curricular innovation will be implemented. A very large number of school systems are having great difficulty implementing the curriculum projects in the social studies and would be interested in using forms of the projects in which television support systems were prominent.

Projects which would seem to be especially fine candidates for television are, in addition to the High School Project in Government:

High School Level

Carnegie History Project (Fenton)
Teaching Public Issues in the High School (Oliver)
Inquiry in Social Studies (Massialas)

Elementary Level

Michigan Social Science Project (Lippitt-Fox)
Georgia Anthropology Project (Rice)
Man, A Course of Study (Dow)

All Levels

Minnesota Project (West)

Recommendation #3:

A Bank of Courses in the Social Studies

Our third recommendation is for the creation of a bank of short courses designed to teach the processes of social science inquiry--to teach students how social scientists go about analyzing social problems and how they might go about this themselves. Such courses, utilizing combinations of television tape and print materials, can provide a flexible array of offerings which can be combined in various ways. For example, some could be coordinated with the study of urban problems, thus creating for, say, elementary school children, a year's study of the use of the social sciences to approach urban planning. High school students could put together combinations making up an introduction to one or more of the social sciences.

The bank would constitute a television support system that provides direct assistance to the student. It would consist of a comprehensive

set of short courses, mediated largely by television, some directed to young children, others to older children and high school students, having as their general aim the purpose of teaching how social scientists go about defining social problems, collecting data about them, and building concepts and theories which can be used to understand and manage the problems. The quality of the courses should be such that they could be broadcast over open and closed-circuit systems and used by classrooms or individuals employing tape playback.

To make the contents of such a bank more explicit, the following section describes how courses might be developed to teach social problem-solving with the emphasis on methodology drawn from the social sciences. The examples are fragmentary--our purpose is not to provide a complete "map" of the courses possible, but to illustrate their texture and the possibilities of such a strategy.

We envision a bank of very short courses which employ television tapes in combination with print media. Each course might be completable by a student in from ten to thirty hours of study time. Some of these courses would deal with general methods drawn from the social sciences. Others would be specific to the models of inquiry and concepts of social science disciplines. The totality would be an array of courses which students might select in a wide variety of combinations. Some might select them so as to build competence in a single discipline. Others might use them to study the methods of several disciplines. They would also serve students who needed to acquire skills useful in conducting specific studies.

High schools which employ flexible scheduling patterns would probably find the courses especially useful, for they would help fill the great present need for self-instructional modules so necessary if flexible scheduling is to operate sucessfully.

The first step in the development of such a bank would be an identification of the skills and concepts which they would be built around. This is a complex task which we would not attempt to preempt, but to illustrate what a list of concepts and skills might look like, we have developed a brief list of some of the general skills that might be included. These skills constitute some of the methods of social science.

The position we take is that the skills of the social studies are versions of the activities that scientists use when they study society. The skills that should result from the social studies curriculum are those needed to carry out objective and thoughtful studies of social phenomena. Why is this? Because our most important education is for self-education of the future. We are unsure what specific facts the student needs to know for his future. However, we can try to prepare him to solve problems by finding the information he needs and building ideas appropriate to the world he will live in.

We can distinguish four kinds of scientific activity that form the basis of most social studies skills:

1. Making observations (or using data of others)
2. Making categories that note similarities and differences in information or data (or we may borrow the categories of others)
3. Making inferences about relationship or causation (or we may borrow the inferences of others)

4. Making judgments about the goodness or desirability of events (or we may examine the judgments of others)

Each of these processes is different from the others and each requires special teaching, although it is possible to organize units of study that treat them simultaneously.

The skills for making observations and building and using the categories of others need to be introduced in the elementary school years and continued through the high school. Making inferences and using the inferences of others appear to be most appropriately introduced in the later elementary and junior high school years and continued to the end. Making and using value judgments, while it occurs always, should be a primary business of the secondary schools. The use of maps, charts, graphs, the writing of reports, the use of reference works and original sources of information should start in the earliest school years.

Primary Grades	Making Observations Organizing Observations and Making Categories Using Observations by Resource Visitors Learning Basic Social Science Categories (as Cultural Universals) Making Simple Maps, Charts, Tables
Intermediate Grades (New skills are underlined)	Making Observations Building Categories and Making and Using Maps, Charts, Graphs Using Standard References Using Original Sources Making Inferences (Introduction)

Junior High	Using Standard Reference Making Inferences Using Multiple Original Sources Charting Multiple Original Sources Making Inferences about Multiple Causation Making Reports Using Social Science Concepts Extending Map, Chart, and Graph Skills
Senior High	Making Inferences about Multiple Causation Examining Theories from Social Science Analyzing Controversial Public Issues Seeking Sources of Value Judgments Learning Frameworks for Social Analysis

The general principle here is to begin with observation and learning to use the information and observations of others and (while that continues) to proceed through category building and examining the categories of others through the making of inferences and examination of theories of social causation, until in the last years the concentration is on value judgments and complex analysis. Each skill could be broken into contributing smaller skills which could be the center of one of the little courses. What might the contributing skills and courses look like?

The courses presented here are based on three teachable types of behavior which are aspects of social inquiry or else stimulate the social inquiry process are: (1) the operations directly related to social science inquiry, i.e. data finding, data making, data processing, and data using; (these can be used by practicing them) (2) analogs which stimulate social investigations (these can be learned through practice); and (3) replications of actual social investigations (these can be taught by reconstructing a situation whereby the child can imitate and experience the discovery process engaged in by social sciences). In all these cases

the instructional strategies are drawn from the methods of the social science disciplines and correspond to social science inquiry either in fact or by analogy.

Operations

In the course of social inquiry the social scientist is likely to perform four types of operations: data finding, data making, data processing, and using data. Data finding operations, which are a primary element of social investigation, involve identifying the natural residue of man's social affairs, e.g. reports, projectile paints, paintings, diaries, newspapers, photographs and the like. The identification and analysis of these sources are both teachable data finding operations. Data making operations, that is, operations to create data, are also teachable. Children can learn to observe, quantify, interview, survey, map and perform experiments. Data processing includes classifying, comparing, defining, modeling, graphing and using statistics, all of which are teachable. Data using involves operations such as inferring, deducing, generalizing, explaining, describing and predicting, and these also can be defined and taught with reasonable precision.

How might these operations be taught in a bank of courses employing television? Each of the following course examples emphasizes a particular type of social inquiry operation.

Examples One and Two: Demography of Cities

In examples one and two young children study about cities. The data processing and data finding activities draw on a set of 100 cards containing

census information about several large cities in America.

Example One (Data Processing) begins the proposed segment of study by introducing children to how we speculate that man first learned to count and thus to perform quantitative comparisons. Customarily our appeals in the social studies have been literary ones: In crafting our appeals around the romantic, the visionary, the quaint, the intimate, the exotic, the heroic, legislative, industrial, or military accomplishments of men, we have overlooked the fact that actions of performing quantitative comparisons are also appealing to children. Given the introduction of how man first learned to count, we would then pose for children the surprising possibility of "growing down". Wouldn't it be a surprise if puppies, trees and Dads grew down every year! Do cities grow up like we expect in puppies, trees, people? You could easily send individuals or groups to the data bank with these introductions:

> Draw two boxes. Call box 1 GROWING UP. Call box 2 GROWING DOWN.
>
> Look at the population for any ten cities.
>
> Compare population for 1950 with population for 1960.
>
> Decide whether each city is growing up or growing down. Then put the name of that city in box 1 or box 2.

Here are other data processing activities that might follow. If the cities were numbered in rank number according to size, the class could perform systematic comparisons by taking every fifth city in the array of 100 (thus beginning to learn how to sample an array of cases). Thinking there may be growth differences according to size, the students could take each city between 1 and 10 to compare with every city ranking in size between 90 and 100.

Regional differences might be suggested by dividing a map of the United States into quadrants and then locating the ten largest cities losing population. Are they bunched or scattered geographically?

Historical differences might be suggested if the class grouped cities by age (year in which they passed 100 thousand in population). Do "old" cities grow differently than "new" ones?

Introducing the distinction between central city and suburb provides the possibility for a number of comparisons. The data bank could be used to compare central city population growth or loss with suburban population growth or loss between 1950 and 1960. Given the fact that one out of ten Americans is black, the children could look at whether black Americans are distributed evenly or unevenly between central city and suburb. Simplified statistics on housing, income, and education could also be used to perform additional comparisons between central city and suburb, and thus, between white and black America.

After the presentation, data using and problem-focus students might move on to data processing--testing out generalities about growth patterns for cities, moving back to the data sources for verification. Examples one and two illustrate the range of teacher and student options within this instructional support system. They also illustrate our contention that the next breakthrough in the use of the medium will be designed systems employing television in an instructional matrix.

Example Two (Data Making)

The previous example is very cognitive or "cool" involving mainly number and space rather than lives and feelings. A "hot" use of the medium

might involve teaching students to use themselves as a data source in trying to fathom the dynamics of small groups. The following two activities, the Red-Green Game and the NASA Game use games to simulate the environment in which students learn to convert "experiences" into data: Students enact, observe and confront actions of which they are a part. Television is employed to suggest activities and as an expository source of information about studies of group behavior.

The Green-Red Game involves small groups whose instructions are to "make as much money as you can". Groups secretly chose to go "Green" or "Red" in view of a pay-off matrix announced to all. Payoffs in dollar rewards or penalties are designed so that everybody loses unless all groups independently and in good faith choose "Red". Play runs for ten rounds. After each round of play the winnings or losses of each group are posted. Conferences by representatives and the weighting of the pay-offs after the fifth, seventh, and ninth rounds provides added "crunch". The "winner" normally is the group with the smallest losses, but all groups tend to end up owing the "banker" money, especially under competitive strategies of play. The study of cooperative and competitive behavior can also be supplemented with adapted research reports and appropriate studies as well as a visual and oral record of a participant classifying his behavior on a data sheet.

The NASA game involves individual and group decision making in arranging a priority list of supplies to take from the lunar module for a trek across the face of the moon after a landing failure. First, each individual ranks the list of fifteen items independently and sets it aside.

The fifteen items range from matches to pistols, oxygen tanks and stellar maps. Groups are then formed to develop priority rankings under conditions of consensus rather than majority vote. In both cases the priority rankings of the U.S. astronauts is used as a standard against which to compare individual rankings with group rankings. In most cases students experience directly the paradox of frustrating, boring, time-consuming, exhausting, and "dumb" group decision making which surprisingly yields results superior to the aggregate individual scores.

The course can include interviews with a social psychologist re-creating his studies of decision making processes in group adapted research reports, leadership studies and observation instruments can also facilitate the study of decision making.

The play of the game is a data generating process which converts feelings to data. The energy-charged immediate or "hot" experience is surrounded by a set of instructional components especially suited to capture this atmosphere and facilitate the analysis of that direct experience in group behavior.

Instructional analog

The instructional analog strategy contrives activity that metaphorically resembles social inquiry processes. This strategy is certainly not a new paradigm; model and metaphor are standard equipment in proper science. Teachers often use these images to impart concepts and information about their subject. The slightly different idea stressed here is that we can also invent instructional analogs not to explain concepts but to explain how a particular discipline works. In other words, we want to create an on-going, experience based metaphor.

An example of this strategy is found in the interlude called "The Penny" reported by a Detroit teacher working with artifacts to make mute objects yield up information (data finding). This teacher was introducing the study of early man, particularly life in caves. The prime objective of this introductory lesson was to make a distinction between primary and secondary source material. Everyone in the class was given a penny. He was instructed that the time was now 5000AD and this object had been found in the soil of what might have been the side of an ancient city. The further instructions, "Guess what this round bit of copper might mean", set the class to figuring out what might safely be said about the copper object. Flat assertions about the coin and its meaning were countered by questions from the teacher. In this way the class was helped to form more circumspect inferences about that object.

The designed "as if" circumstance with the penny is what we call an instructional analog. The round copper object and the manner of submitting it to scrutiny are analogous to the processes involved in doing archeology. What the class was involved in was not the direct work of a discipline but a contrivance that simulated one part of the process of that discipline.

The television-mediated version of this course would be essentially the same, except that brief televised episodes would play the teacher roles.

Example Three (Anthropology and the origins of man in the Western Hemisphere).

As late as 1929 orthodox archeological thought in America believed man in the new world to be no older than two, three, or possibly four thousand years. Even these late comers were explained in many romantic

and fanciful ways, e.g. "The lost tribes of Israel." Conventional thought could not abide the idea of a vast, elaborate prehistory for the aboriginal Americans. The Folsom point discovery changed all that. One of the most exciting areas of inquiry today concerns the origins of men in this hemisphere. Example Three poses the question of origin and involves the interaction of two components--television and print.

In this course there are four short television programs comprising four different activities: watching an analog, doing an analog, reading about archeological method, and reading about archeological studies. Each television interlude would involve a group of children engaged in the analog followed by a brief interpretation by an anthopologist. The interpretation is necessary since most analogs are fundamentally misleading in some way. "The Penny" analog, involving how to carry on a dialogue with an artifact, has already been described. The second analog, "The American Street" deals with artifacts and making references from them. Parking meters are interpreted as roadside effigies to be propitiated with small religious tokens; briefcases are seen as sacred carrying pouches for foods and tobacco and so on. "Wastebasket", the third analog, presents the residue of "an ancient culture" (the class next door) boys and girls that exhausted a vast amount of time, 9 AM to 3 PM once the wastebasket is touched the data begins to be destroyed (with the first shovelful you destroy part of the data in any dig). "How will we plan to dig this wastebasket?" Lastly, "automobile" raises questions about classification and relative time dating by having the class sort pictures of old automobiles analogous to sorting potherds or classifying projectile paints. The analog, rather than using pots and

paints, deals with running boards and radiator caps or other attributes of the modern car.

In this course the televised sequences are co-ordinated with the appropriate pamphlets on archeological method-inference, stratigraphy, classification and absolute and relative time-dating and with printed archeological studies--The Folsom Point, Sandra, N.N., Hopewell, N.M., Black Point, Arizona.

Replication

A third class of teaching actions in the classroom involves replicating social investigations. Like the analog, the function of the replication is not necessarily to teach certain information but to provide an experience, once removed, i.e. in time, but not substance, of the act of discovery. It is true that replication is something less than the scholarly experience itself. But as an instructional strategy it does have these uses. First, it constructs a situation whereby the child can imitate the process for whatever excitement and instruction imitation offers him. Secondly, it sets the stage for adjunct investigations. If for example, you made available a data bank for cities, children could retrieve population, rainfall, smog, temperature, industrial and automotive statistics, to name only a few, to further explore questions on their own about the micro-climates of cities. They might even pose and test the question, is the relationship true for cities nearby?

Example Four: The Climate of Cities

Example Four, "The Climate of Cities" centers on two studies which can use replication as an instructional strategy and draws on a data bank for its source material. The studies are designed for young children and pertain to the study of man's cities, particularly the micro-climatology of cities. The first study replicates an investigation reported in Landsburg's "The Climate of Cities." He reports there the gradient of increasing precipitation for Tulsa, Oklahoma which has for the past fifty years shown an apparent relationship to the gradient of increasing population for that city. More people seem to mean more rain for the city. We propose to present children with two sets of data to provoke curiosity about a city that gets wetter and wetter as it gets bigger and bigger. The aim will be to create a sense of oddity and thereby force the question, "Could more people in a city cause it to rain more?" The second set of activities ask the children to perform certain "tests". First, since Landsburg's study included data only up to 1950, children could be provided with the rainfall and population records since 1950 and asked the further question, "Is the surprise still there?" The second test compares Tulsa with the rainfall for nine other cities spread over the United States. Using these children can further test the inferred relationship between precipitation and population in the cities. They can look at the slope of population changes and the slope, if there is one, in precipitation rates over time. Interestingly enough, these nine cities illustrate nicely the fact that you can never affirm or deny inductive inferences absolutely. The adequacy of an inductive argument, unlike that of a deductive argument,

cannot be absolutely a yes or no matter, but it must be one of degree, of more or less warrant for the inference. Without verbalizing this for the class they can work with the ambiguity in the data because the nine cities array themselves about as follows: one contradicts the inference rather well, three cities are ambiguous, leaving five cities with data generally in support of the inferred relationship between population and precipitation in cities.

At this point children could read (or have information otherwise mediated) a very brief, adapted portion of Landsburg's original report in which he discusses cities as heat islands, as wind obstructions, and as producers of haze or other particles in the air.

On the basis of this short passage the children can be helped to modify their preliminary "good guesses" or inference so that it reads something like this:

> When Tulsa grew in population, more heat and particles were probably added to the air. More and bigger buildings blocked the wind. The wind, heat, and particles changed the climate. It became rainier.

Finally, the children can test the revised inference by comparing downtown rain records with records at the city airports six miles north of Tulsa. If the city reports more rain, then the inferred urban effect on precipitation rates seems to be strengthened.

Apparently the investigation of oddities in data is of wide import. Kuhn's Structure of Scientific Revolutions calls attention to the role

of the animal in the emergence of scientific discoveries. Discovery, according to Kuhn, commences with the recognition that nature has somehow violated the standard expectations that govern certain scientific fields. With this in mind it seems useful that children experience at least under replicated conditions the process of noticing surprises in data and the investigations of them. The Tulsa interlude proposed above offers children the possibility of noticing an oddity, developing an inference, and performing tests to affirm or deny whether the inference is plausible.

Al Capp's character, Joe Bftmsks, goes through life under a perpetual cloud of rain; La Porte, Indiana seems to qualify as the Joe Bftmsks of midwest cities. In 1960 La Porte received better than fifty inches of rain. The oddity is that Valpariso and South Bend, approximately twenty miles west and east respectively, received much less rain. This curiosity first piqued the interest of Stanley A. Changnon, Jr. of the Illinois State Water Survey. He asked himself, "Is it real?" Or, "Are the records an artifact of poor measurement or recording techniques?" Similarly,we think an episode could introduce this surprise of La Porte, alias Joe Bftmsks, and elicit from the class the question, "Is it real or not?" Using several of the simpler tests reported by Changnon they could decide for themselves. If the children hunched that 1960 was an accident they could look, as did Changnon, at the discrepency in rainfall records for the three cities over time. Changnon reports thunderstorm and hail records. They could look at these to see if they affirm the differential between the three cities. They could read how the investigator

satisfied himself that he was working with accurate records. In short, the class could reconstruct the actions taken by the original investigator to resolve the basic question, is surprise for real?

As the children turn from the preliminary question of whether the phenomena is real or not and move on to consider how to account for La Porte's increased rain, we propose to introduce to children magic as a medium with which to explain. This, of course, does not appear in the original report of Changnon; but, because magic is so much a part of man-the-explainer I propose to exploit this occasion by having children read a magic story explaining why La Porte is rainier than all the towns around it.

Reading a whimsical story under these conditions is not frivilous or decorative. The Magic Story of La Porte could lead children to write their own stories explaining how cities are born, become sick, or even die. The adult world often seeks to explain urban man through the use of near-magic metaphors of birth, growth, sickness, and death. Thomas Jefferson, you know, revealed himself when he used "sores on the human body" as his image of cities in America.

Returning to the replication it seems to us that the children might now follow Changnon's trail as he traced the La Porte rain increment to its source near Chicago and the Gary industrial complex for the production of steel. Parts of the explanation can be fairly easily "salted" in a data bank thereby requiring the class to retrieve the relevant data and to arrange it so that a plausible explanation is constructed.

Television is used alternately as a problem focus and as a source of information. We can visualize five television sequences. The first problem focus sequence sets up the example of the relation between population and precipitation in Oklahoma. The second and third sequences provide instruction in making references and testing inferences which can be applied to the Tulsa example. In between these sequences, students will have had the opportunity to engage in the inquiry suggested by the problem focus. For this they would draw upon a data bank containing a full array of non-telling material on cities and weather symptoms, i.e. cartoons, poems, paintings, legislation, interviews, maps, charts, slides, photographs, statistics, reports, tapes, drawings, newspapers, etc. The fourth sequence will provide another problem focus, this time on rainfall in La Porte, Indiana. After returning to the data bank, the students will tune in to the fifth instructional sequence on the use of magic to explain phenomenon. The class will then return to the replication and the data bank piecing together Changnon's explanation.

Practical Considerations

Building a bank of courses of coordinated television and print segments would not be easy, but the developed product would be an extremely strong set of options in the social studies. Social studies curriculum personnel generally agree that one of the most difficult types of curricular innovations to implement is the teaching of social science process and how to apply social sciencing to

social process.

Where to Begin?

Maximum use would be obtained from a set of short courses which could be used as the basis for a classroom-centered curriculum or as a student-selected, self-administered bank.

The upper elementary grades are a good starting place, for curricula at that level is in a state of transition and evolving toward patterns which cannot be satisfied by print media alone.

Three courses seem especially appropriate for courses at that level:

1. A course to teach students techniques for studying cities.
2. A course to help students learn how to inquire into interpersonal relations.
3. A course designed to introduce students to the study of international relations.

Each of these three courses would fit into many places in both existing and emerging curricular patterns in upper elementary social studies, and they would be compatible with middle school curriculums and instructional patterns. Hence, they are appropriate for production by consortia of school districts which have different social studies curriculum patterns.

Each course should consist of about thirty half-hour television segments coordinated with pamphlets providing information sources and the necessary materials for classroom or individual study. The television segments and pamphlets should be developed under a plan which permits the courses to be administered in any of three ways:

a. As a year or half-year course using open or closed-circuit transmission with weekly or bi-weekly television broadcasts and classroom instruction coordinated closely with the television segments.

b. As an intensive six-eight week course with daily television instruction followed by classroom instruction.

c. As a self-administering course to be taken by individuals or small groups with television tapes and pamphlets as the basic instructional materials.

By being developed in the three forms the courses would have vastly increased usage compared to courses designed for only one type of use, but the three forms would have much common material, minimizing cost of production.

Several types of material would have to be produced to develop the course:

1. A detailed plan.
2. Teacher education materials (a set of television and audio-tape programs for each course).
3. The thirty television segments.

4. The pamphlet-type print material (data sources, activities, and work sheets).

Instructions to children would be carried by "3" and "4", the television segments and the pamphlets.

The sequence of each course should introduce students to the problem area, techniques for studying it, and lead them to analyze data. For example, the course on urban life could be divided into four phases: Transportation, Housing, Leisure, and Making Contact with People, each with segments of varying length (some might need three or four programs and student activity sessions). The structure of the phase on transportation might be organized as follows,

	Content and Approach	Teacher Training Material	Television Programs	Pamphlets Content
Course Segment One	Introduce students to problem of moving people around the city	Overview of techniques for studying transportation problems	Episodic presentation of data on transportation in one large city	More data on transportation
Course Segment Two	Introduce social scientist collecting data on people's preferences in personal transportation and transport. of goods	Program demonstrating teaching strategy for this segment (emphasis half on content, half on teaching)	Shows social scientist making data on preferences in transportation. Suggests similar activity for children	Presents data. Leads children to make data from local or pamphlet source
Course Segment Three	Social scientist analyzes data he has made and leads children to similar activity	Program demonstrating teaching strategy for this segment (emphasis half on content, half on teaching)	Shows social scientist analyzing data on preferences in transportation. Suggests similar activity for children	Presents data. Leads children to analyze data from local or pamphlet source

The course would continue in this fashion. Television would function, potentially, in all three of the support roles. In open-circuit it would be the major managing element, for classroom activities and television segments would have to be closely related. A closed-circuit made into many classrooms would still find television in the management role, with teachers modifying activities as appropriate for their children. When facilities permitted teachers or students to use tape players at their option, the management function would shift in their direction.

Teacher support through the training materials and student support through data input would be prominent roles for television also.

Who Should Produce?

Such series would best be produced by consortia of user districts who agreed to generate social studies innovation in the directions compatible with the courses. (As indicated earlier, we made the selection not only because the courses fit our preferred missions and strategies but because they would fit a variety of innovative patterns.) With a reasonably large consortium, use would not have to include all or even most classrooms to be economically feasible, so local faculty freedom could be maximized.

Coda

We have suggested this small beginning as a conservative, economical, yet flexible start to the long process of using television to revitalize the social studies.

The road to be traveled is long, however, and some of our bolder recommendations, or equivalent ones, are essential if we are to generate the vital quality of social education so necessary to our society. We hope to see television giving thrust to the national curriculum projects, to see the bank of social science courses come into existence, and see imaginative series uniting the nation's students around the alleviation of serious social problems. The social studies began, early in the century, with an exciting social and academic mission and a rich teaching strategy. The area became anemic, but now the fresh and diverse approaches of recent years have built a base from which, with adroit use of the powerful new media, a new vitality can be realized.